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*An Account of the English Colony in New South Wales: with Remarks on the Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the Native Inhabitants of that Country. To which are added, some Particulars of New Zealand; compiled, by permission, from the MSS. of Lieutenant-Governor King. By David Collins, Esq. late Judge Advocate and Secretary of the Colony. Illustrated by Engravings. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

AN unexampled and very distant colonisation, in an island of which scarcely any knowledge had been previously acquired, was perhaps a rash attempt; but it was probable that it might become the source of instruction and benefit. The separation of a body of convicts from that society which had been injured by their violation of the rules of morality, religion, and social order, might afford various subjects of speculation. To perceive the mind gradually returning (if indeed it should ever happen to return) from that bent which it had taken in consequence of bad example, innate profligacy, or an unlimited indulgence of the most licentious passions, would be an object of curiosity; nor would it be less interesting to survey the contest between hardened villany on one side, and, on the other, the joint allurements of good example, rewards for returning virtue, and punishments for continued vice. If the colonised part of New South-Wales be not naturally fertile; if the colonists were for a time wholly occupied in supplying themselves with subsistence till the arrival of fresh stores from distant regions; if little therefore could be added to our knowledge of the country and its productions in more fertile spots; the history of the mind will at least have been illustrated by its exertions in new and untried situations; something must have been forced on the observation of the new inhabitants, though eagerly intent on their necessary labours. In other points, curiosity is amply gratified. We perceive, in

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numerous instances, guilt struggling with the internal feelings of conscience, combating with the superior lustre and the more comfortable rewards of an honest and industrious life. We perceive virtue and honesty alternately conquering and conquered: but, on the whole, we observe a pleasing prospect of returning regularity; and the example of penitence may have the strongest influence on succeeding convicts.

We have not been inattentive to this new scheme of reforming vice and correcting the most guilty tendencies. The opinion which we early gave of the utility, and also of the inconveniences of the scheme, is not materially changed by the events; and we may still observe that the latter are great and obvious, and the former doubtful or inconsiderable.

In the present volume, Mr. Collins has given a regular journal of the original voyage, and of the transactions of the new colony. In perusing his work, we follow the settlers in every step; we find them on the verge of famine; we see the community disturbed by the atrocious conduct of some of the convicts, and injured in those points on which the existence of the whole depended, by the unthinking villany of the most abandoned reprobates, who must themselves have suffered in the general ruin.

The journal is frequently a register of crimes and punishments; of ingenuity struggling against the strict rules of social order, to return to the paths of vice. Sometimes, the narrative is painful from the distresses to which the convicts, and the persons appointed to guard and superintend them, have been exposed; and we cannot avoid asking the common question, '*cui bono?*' while the objections, stated to the scheme before it was carried into execution, return.

New Holland is the largest of all the islands hitherto discovered: many, indeed, consider it as worthy of the name of a continent. Captain Cook, examining the bay so distinguished for the novelty and variety of its botanical riches, was induced, on this and on other accounts, to colour the description of it too highly; and it was resolved, that a colonial establishment of a new kind should be formed near that spot. As Botany Bay, however, was found to have few recommendations for this purpose, Port Jackson was preferred. Even about this port, the country appears to be infertile: it ends in a rill, rather than a river; and, to the west, are hills, with few intervals of savannahs.

In the spot thus chosen for a settlement, nature seemed to combine with the indolence and the depravity of the convicts, to retard cultivation; and various accidents happened to the cattle, which could not easily be replaced. It was not before the year 1794, that the colonists had a reasonable prospect of no



longer depending on the mother country for the supply of the most essential articles. While the soil in the neighbourhood of Port Jackson has been unproductive, Norfolk Island, situated at a distance in the Eastern Ocean, in a similar climate, but blessed with a more fertile soil, has prospered in comparison. Yet here the settlers begin to feel the opposite inconvenience. Industry is checked for want of a market; and the industrious cultivator is obliged to return to the military life, for want of that excitement to labour, which its reward produces. The flax of this island is of a very good quality; but, though it was selected as a settlement chiefly for the cultivation of that article, the success of the management has been inconsiderable. The New-Zealanders, from whom the art was to be learned, unwilling to leave their habitations, and uneasy when they had been carried to Norfolk Island, only gave imperfect information. Yet, amidst all impediments, the manufacture of canvas is going on, and may probably terminate to the benefit of the country which has fostered these settlements at an uncommon expense.

On the north of Port Jackson is a navigable river named the Hawkesbury, which, like the Nile, occasionally overflows its banks. The neighbourhood of this stream is highly fertile. If the original search had extended so far, this district, we may suppose, would have been preferred to the former; and it is not difficult to foresee that the seat of population, if not of government, will soon be transferred to the banks of the Hawkesbury. On the west, when the hills have been ascended, ground more fruitful, and savannahs more extensive, have been discovered; and, on the southern and the south-western shores, coal and lime may be found. It is surprising, that, when various ships, belonging to government and to merchants, have lain for some time at Port Jackson, no enterprising officers have endeavoured to examine the neighbouring shores in their long boats and yawls. When we consider the adventurous exploits of Mr. Whidbey, in the voyage of Vancouver, we are astonished at the neglect of these opportunities.

The longitude of Paramatta, the seat of government, situated on the rill which falls into the harbour of Jackson, is  $151^{\circ} 18' 8''$  east, from Greenwich; and its latitude is  $33^{\circ} 48'$  south. The land is cold, wet, acrid, and unproductive, from the droppings of the gum trees and similar vegetables. Of some excursions, which have been made from this settlement, we shall add an account in the author's words.

' Captain Paterfon, of the New South Wales corps, an account of whose journies in Africa appeared in print some years ago, conceiving that he might be able to penetrate as far as, or even beyond,

the western mountains, (commonly known in the colony by the name of the Blue Mountains, from the appearance which land so high and distant generally wears), set off from the settlement with a small party of gentlemen, (captain Johnston, Mr. Palmer, and Mr. Laing the assistant-surgeon,) well provided with arms, and having provisions and necessaries sufficient for a journey of six weeks, to make the attempt. Boats were sent round to Broken Bay, whence they got into the Hawkesbury, and the fourth day reached as far as Richmond hill. At this place, in the year 1789, the governor's progress up the river was obstructed by a fall of water, which his boats were too heavy to drag over. This difficulty captain Paterfon overcame by quitting his large boats, and proceeding from Richmond hill with two that were smaller and lighter. He found that this part of the river carried him to the westward, and into the chasm that divided the high land seen from Richmond hill. Hither, however, he got with great difficulty and some danger, meeting in the space of about ten miles with not less than five waterfalls, one of which was rather steep, and was running at the rate of ten or twelve miles an hour. Above this part the water was about fifteen yards from side to side, and came down with some rapidity, a fall of rain having swollen the stream. Their navigation was here so intricate, lying between large pieces of rock that had been borne down by torrents, and some stumps of trees which they could not always see, that (after having loosened a plank in one boat, and driven the other upon a stump which forced its way through her bottom) they gave up any further progress, leaving the western mountains to be the object of discovery at some future day. It was supposed that they had proceeded ten miles farther up the river than had ever before been done, and named that part of it which until then had been unseen, "the Grose;" and a high peak of land, which they had in view in the chasm, they called "Harrington Peak."

Captain Paterfon, as a botanist, was amply rewarded for his labour and disappointment by discovering several new plants. Of the soil in which they grew, he did not, however, speak very favourably. P. 312.

A passage over the inland mountains which form the western boundary of the county of Cumberland being deemed practicable, Henry Hacking, a seaman, set off on the 20th of the month, with a companion or two, determined to try it. On the 27th they returned with an account of their having penetrated twenty miles further inland than any other European. Hacking reported, that on reaching the mountains, his further route lay over eighteen or nineteen ridges of high rocks; and that when he halted, determined to return, he still had in view before him the same wild and inaccessible kind of country. The summits of these rocks were of iron-



stone, large fragments of which had covered the intermediate valleys, in which water of a reddish tinge was observed to stagnate in many spots. The soil midway up the ascent appeared good, and afforded shelter and food for several red kangaroos. The ground every where bore signs of being frequently visited by high winds; for on the sides exposed to the south and south-east it was strewed with the trunks of large trees. They saw but one native in this desolate region, and he fled from their approach, preferring the enjoyments of his rocks and woods, with liberty, to any intercourse with them. These hills appearing to extend very far to the northward and southward, an impassable barrier seemed fixed to the westward; and little hope was left of our extending cultivation beyond the limits of the county of Cumberland.' P. 384.

The natives are apparently very near the Negro race; and we might almost consider them as such, from their sunken eyes, projecting inferior maxillæ, long slender legs, and long arms. The red colour, however, of the new-born children, the want of woolly hair, and of the incurvated leg, show that they are distinct; and they are probably a degenerated race of Malays. They appeared at first stupid, sullen, and incapable of mental cultivation. For a time, they avoided their new neighbours, and, when compelled to stay with them, seemed highly displeased. They have since, however, been more sociable; and the younger natives have cheerfully associated with the colonists, and assisted in their labours. Ben-nil-long was in England; but he afforded no favourable specimen of the inhabitants of New South Wales. Yet he observed the manners of Europeans with care, and imitated them with success. Of his clothes he seemed proud; but he forsook them occasionally; and there is reason to think that he has, by this time, returned, like the educated gypsy, to his former habits.—But, before we consider more fully the manners of the inhabitants, we shall add one extract. We fear, *mutato nomine*, that the accident may have been similar, as it was probably on a neighbouring spot, to the fatal termination of the life of La Pérouse.

'Captain Bligh was particularly instructed to survey the straits which separate New Holland from New Guinea. By the accounts of his voyage which reached us, we found that the two ships Providence and Assistance were twenty days from their entrance into the strait to their finding themselves again in an open sea. The navigation through this passage was described as the most dangerous ever performed by any navigator, abounding in every direction with islands, breakers, and shoals, through which they pursued their course with the utmost difficulty. In one day, on anchoring to avoid danger, the Providence broke two of her anchors; and as the eastern monsoon was blowing, (the month of September 1792.)

and the passage which they were exploring was extremely narrow it became impossible to beat back. From some of the islands eight canoes formed the daring attempt of attacking the armed tender, and with their arrows killed one and wounded two of the seamen. Some of these canoes were sixty or seventy feet long, and in one of them twenty-two persons were counted,' p. 355.

The general remarks on the people relate to their government and religion, stature and appearance, habitations, courtship and marriage, customs and manners, superstitions, diseases, property, dispositions, funeral ceremonies, and language. We shall notice some of the more remarkable circumstances.

Their government is evidently patriarchal; the chief command of a family rests in the parents; and to a family others are attached, particularly the adopted children, who obey with equal readiness. Their tribes are numerous; but no superiority seems to belong to any particular tribe, except that which is distinguished by the name of Cam-mer-ray. Of this tribe are their priests or sorcerers, who have the supreme direction of their superstitious customs. How the men of Cam-mer-ray attained their pre-eminence, is not known; but they are stronger and more active than the other tribes. It is a singular circumstance, that these savages have no religion. We shall select some of our author's observations on this subject.

'I am certain that they do not worship either sun, moon, or star; that, however necessary fire may be to them, it is not an object of adoration; neither have they respect for any particular beast, bird, or fish. I never could discover any object, either substantial or imaginary, that impelled them to the commission of good actions, or deterred them from the perpetration of what we deem crimes. There indeed existed among them some idea of a future state, but not connected in anywise with religion; for it had no influence whatever on their lives and actions. On their being often questioned as to what became of them after their decease, some answered that they went either on or beyond the great water; but by far the greater number signified, that they went to the clouds. Conversing with Ben-nil-long after his return from England, where he had obtained much knowledge of our customs and manners, I wished to learn what were his ideas of the place from which his countrymen came, and led him to the subject by observing, that all the white men here came from England. I then asked him where the black men (or Eora) came from? He hesitated.—Did they come from any island? His answer was, that he knew of none: they came from the clouds (alluding perhaps to the aborigines of the country); and when they died, they returned to the clouds (Boo-row-e). He wished to make me understand that they ascended in the shape of little children, first hovering in the tops and in the branches of trees;



and mentioned something about their eating, in that state, their favourite food, little fishes.' P. 547.

The customs are those of savage nations. The boys, when they become men, are obliged to submit to the loss of one of their fore-teeth; an operation performed with ridiculous ceremonies. The women cut off the two first joints of the little finger of the left hand, as they think them an impediment in winding their fishing lines. The men also perforate the *septum nasi*, and introduce into the opening a small bone of the kangaroo.

Their habitations and mode of living are extremely rude and uncomfortable. They are scarcely defended from the cold; and their food is scanty, precarious, and (except when they feed on fish) unalimentary. Their marriages resemble those of the Romans with the Sabine women: the females are carried off by force. On these occasions, cruelty is added to violence. Intended wives

'are, I believe,' (says Mr. Collins) 'always selected from the women of a tribe different from that of the males, (for they ought not to be dignified with the title of men), and with whom they are at enmity. Secrecy is necessarily observed, and the poor wretch is stolen upon in the absence of her protectors; being first stupified with blows, inflicted with clubs or wooden swords, on the head, back, and shoulders, every one of which is followed by a stream of blood, she is dragged through the woods by one arm, with a perseverance and violence that one might suppose would displace it from its socket; the lover, or rather the ravisher, is regardless of the stones or broken pieces of trees which may lie in his route, being anxious only to convey his prize in safety to his own party, where a scene ensues too shocking to relate. This outrage is not resented by the relations of the female, who only retaliate by a similar outrage when they find it in their power. This is so constantly the practice among them, that even the children make it a game or exercise; and I have often, on hearing the cries of the girls with whom they were playing, run out of my house, thinking some murder was committed, but have found the whole party laughing at my mistake.' P. 559.

Their mimic battles are of course designed to give them the more perfect command of the spear and shield: but they too often engage in real hostility, even in cases of natural death.

'On the death of a person, whether male or female, old or young, the friends of the deceased must be punished, as if the death were occasioned by their neglect.' P. 586.

'Bone-da, a very fine youth, who lived at my house for several months, died of a cold, which, settling in his face, terminated in a

mortification of his upper and lower jaws, and carried him off. We were told that some blood must be spilt on this occasion; but six weeks elapsed before we heard of any thing having happened in consequence of his decease. About that time having passed, however, we heard that a large party of natives belonging to different tribes, being assembled at Pan-ner-rong, (or, as it is named with us, Rose Bay,) the spot which they had often chosen for shedding blood, after dancing and feasting over night, early in the morning, Mo-roo-ber-ra, the brother, and Cole-be, another relation of Bone-da, seized upon a lad named Tar-ra-bil-long, and with a club each gave him a wound in his head, which laid the skull bare. Daring-ha, the sister of Bone-da, had her share in the bloody rite, and pushed at the unoffending boy with a doo-ull or short spear. He was brought into the town and placed at the hospital, and, though the surgeon pronounced from the nature of his wounds that his recovery was rather doubtful, he was seen walking about the day following. On being spoke to about the business, he said he did not weep or cry out like a boy, but like a man cried ki-yah when they struck him; that the persons who treated him in this unfriendly manner were no longer his enemies, but would eat or drink or sit with him as friends.

'Three or four days after this, Go-roo-bine, a grey-headed man, apparently upwards of sixty years of age, who was related to Bone-da, came in with a severe wound on the back part of his head, given him on account of the boy's decease; neither youth nor old age appearing to be exempted from those sanguinary customs.' P. 588.

Our author thinks these savages brave; but they seem to us to be only insensible, or to possess merely passive courage. Life has few charms for them; and they are indifferent about it. They certainly, however, disdain any superiority that is not personal.

Among their diseases we find the venereal contagion. Mr. Collins seems to doubt whether this disease was introduced among them by their European visitants, as they have an appropriate name for it; but untutored children of nature soon learn to affix names; and it would have been of more consequence to have observed, that the name has no reference to its importation. They have the small pox endemial among them, or a similar disease which makes considerable devastation. They burn their dead, if the latter have passed the middle age; but the younger are buried. If the mother die while a child is at the breast, the infant is consigned alive to the same grave. It does not appear, that the inhabitants of the districts bordering on Port Jackson are cannibals.

As we have chiefly attended to the work, we have undesignedly overlooked the author. Before we separate, we must be allowed to speak of him and his object.



'To the public the following work is with respectful deference submitted by its author, who trusts that it will be found to comprise much information interesting in its nature, and that has not been anticipated by any former productions on the same subject. If he should be thought to have been sometimes too minute in his detail, he hopes it will be considered, that the transactions here recorded were penned as they occurred, with the feelings that at the moment they naturally excited in the mind; and that circumstances which, to an indifferent reader, may appear trivial, to a spectator and participant seem often of importance. To the design of this work, (which was, to furnish a complete record of the transactions of the colony from its foundation,) accuracy and a degree of minuteness in detail seemed essential; and on reviewing his manuscript, the author saw little that, consistently with his plan, he could persuade himself to suppress.

'For his labours he claims no credit beyond what may be due to the strictest fidelity in his narrative. It was not a romance that he had to give to the world; nor has he gone out of the track that actual circumstances prepared for him, to furnish food for sickly minds, by fictitious relations of adventures that never happened, but which are by a certain description of readers perused with avidity, and not unfrequently considered as the only passages deserving of notice.' P. vii.

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'Occurrences such as he has had to relate are not often presented to the public; they do not, indeed, often happen. It is not, perhaps, once in a century that colonies are established in the most remote parts of the habitable globe; and it is seldom that men are found existing perfectly in a state of nature. When such circumstances do occur, curiosity, and still more laudable sentiments, must be excited. The gratification even of curiosity alone might have formed a sufficient apology for the author; but he has seen too much of virtue even among the vicious to be indifferent to the sufferings, or backward in promoting the felicities of human nature.' P. ix.

Mr. Collins has endeavoured to join the accuracy of the journalist with the ease of the historian, and has, on the whole, succeeded in rendering his work entertaining and interesting. The larger plates exhibit views of the country, and representations of some of the customs of the natives. The views are not strikingly characteristic; but this may be the fault of the country rather than of the artist; for it may have no peculiar features. Some of the vignettes have merit; but others, and also several of the larger prints, are badly executed.

Of the advantages which may be derived from the colony, we have not professed very high expectations. We shall not, however, conceal the views of Mr. Collins on this subject. May his wishes be realised!

‘ With respect to the resources of the settlement, there can be little doubt, that at this moment it is able to support itself in the article of grain ; and the wild stock of cattle to the westward of the Nepean will soon render it independent on this country in the article of animal food. As to its utility, beside the circumstance of its freeing the mother country from the depraved branches of her offspring, in some instances reforming their dispositions, and in all cases rendering their labour and talents conducive to the public good, it may prove a valuable nursery to our East India possessions for soldiers and seamen.

‘ If, beside all this, a whale fishery should be established, another great benefit may accrue to the parent country from the coast of New South Wales.

‘ The island, moreover, abounds with fine timber in every respect adapted to the purposes of ship-building : iron too it possesses in abundance. Coal has been found there, and some veins of copper ; and however inconsiderable the quantity of these articles that has been hitherto found, yet the proof of their existence will naturally lead to farther research, and most probably terminate in complete success.

‘ The flax plant grows spontaneously, and may, with the assistance of proper implements and other necessities, be turned to very profitable account.

‘ The climate is for the most part temperate and healthy ; cattle are prolific ; and fruits and culinary vegetables thrive with almost a tropical luxuriance.’ P. ix.

*The History of Devonshire. In three Volumes. By the Rev. Richard Polwhele, &c. Vol. I.\* Folio. 2l. 2s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

HAVING already mentioned the inverted order of this publication, we proceed to consider the first volume, or rather that part of it which has appeared. We have waited for its completion, and for the plates designed to accompany it ; but longer delay would be improper.

When, in our former article, we were induced to inquire into the qualifications requisite for a provincial historian, with a view of accounting for the frequent failures which we had witnessed, the literary spectres which had gleamed before our eyes and vanished, we were not aware that we should so soon have proceeded, in the clerical phrase, to the application. We were little pleased with Mr. Polwhele's antiquarian opinions, delivered in his ‘ Historical Views,’ or with his arrangement in the chorographical part of the present work : but we

\* See our XXIIId Volume, New Arr. p. 378.



knew that authors of respectability had occasionally deviated into error and absurdity. To complete our disgust, however, a philosophical sketch remained, exhibiting great confidence and self-conceit without the necessary knowledge of the subject.

After a general description of Devonshire, we find a long chapter on the air and weather of that county; but it seems to be rather a list of storms with their effects, than a philosophical account of facts. Perhaps, indeed, barometers and thermometers are not generally known in Devonshire, as Mr. Polwhele supposes that 'the doctrine of conductors may never have been promulgated at South-Molton.' Those instruments are mentioned twice only; and, in one instance, they were sent, it is expressly said, by Dr. Blagden and Mr. Cavendish.

Springs, rivers, harbours, and the sea, form the subjects of the third chapter. The springs are not important in a medicinal view, as they seem in general to be only flight chalybeates. The rivers are traced from their sources to the sea, with a sketch of the country through which they flow. The descriptions are sufficiently clear, though not very interesting; but the philosophy baffles the powers of analysis. The general opinion, respecting the origin of springs and rivers, is rejected, because the heads of the Tamar and the Torridge are on a 'pretty level summit of a very high common, where there are no rocks or crannies for the vapour or dews to gleet down by, nor any mountains or caverns above it, to collect a body of water.' This jargon is only equaled by another remark: 'The river Exe rises in such high ground, that it must surely derive its origin from the *subterraneous abyss*.' The opinion, indeed, is said to be that of an other individual; but it is quoted without any marks of dissent. This person seems to adopt the idea of some moderns, that springs are derived from the sea, acting as an hydraulic machine, and pressing the water, through natural siphons, to the highest mountains; an opinion which may be confuted by argument or be overwhelmed by ridicule. As the rivers here mentioned rise confessedly on high grounds, these elevated spots must have sides; and this is all that Dr. Halley's hypothesis requires. If the sea, on the other hand, by its weight can force water through the natural siphons, what cause can produce springs of the best water at considerable depths of the ocean?

'In regard to the tides, I shall not enter into any particulars; though I must make one general observation on their ebbing and flowing. The cause of this is supposed to be the moon—a theory, which, so far as it relates to spring and neap-tides, is beautiful and satisfactory. But I think it deficient on many considerations, as to the daily tides. If the flux and reflux were wholly influenced by the moon, why does not the moon affect the great fresh water lakes

in America? That tides do not arise from the influence of the moon, but are caused by polar inundations, is a much more probable doctrine.' Vol. i. p. 33.

Here we may observe, that the moon is only the cause of the regularly returning tides, and not the only cause of spring and neap tides. The want of tides in the American lakes has been often explained; and the fanciful system of St. Pierre, at which every philosopher smiles, will not, if admitted, explain the daily flow and ebb. The cause of tides is undoubtedly the concurrent or opposite action of the sun and moon; and one of the latest opponents of this doctrine is obliged to confess the force of the leading arguments, though willing to transfer the action to the atmosphere, and to consider the flow and ebb of the sea as a secondary effect.—Some confusion occurs with respect to the diminution of rivers. Woods, says Mr. Polwhele, lessen evaporation; and, as countries in general were once wooded, the evaporation must be less. Does he think that water which has evaporated is lost? Does he not know, that it descends again in rain? If his system should be admitted, it would contradict his wise theory of the source of rivers; for, while the sea continues of sufficient depth, enough of water must be supplied to the springs to compensate the evaporation.

What the historian has remarked concerning the change of course in many rivers is curious, and, if correct, is of local importance; but it seems to have escaped him, that all the circumstances mentioned cannot have arisen from this change. Rivers, in their former state, must have been more expanded and less deep. When the neighbouring marshes are drained, their beds are proportionally narrower.

The fourth chapter is introduced in the following manner: 'a view of the country; strata next the surface; disposition of the strata; native and extraneous fossils; geological reflections, deluges, volcanos, earthquakes.' It would be difficult to give any general character of this confused chapter. A piece of ore, not of a very rich kind, seems to be a proper type of it; for we observe the splendor of a precious metal, but, on close examination, perceive it to be mundic; we find much useless earth and much matter which debase the value of the ore, while the proportion of the real metal is small and is obtained with difficulty. We do not consider, as a good mineralogist, an author who affirms, that moorstone, whinstone, and basaltes, are species of lava; who gives three different descriptions of tufa, either in the text or notes, and allows only the name of granite to the compound stone, in which the three component parts are distinctly visible. The notes indeed are sometimes amplifications, sometimes con-



traditions, of the text: yet, in both, we occasionally find descriptions appropriate and clear.

The leading features of the soil of this county seem to be the red loam and the granite, though, in many parts, lime-stone and clay abound: sometimes sand rises through a considerable space. The lime-stone country contains many varieties of marble: our author mentions twenty-four sorts; but he might, with truth, have greatly increased the number. He tells us, with some marks of contempt, that several of these are spars. But he ought to have known that the most beautifully veined marbles, as they are called, are really spars.

Coal, it is said, is not found in Devonshire; which affords culm only, if we except the Bovey coal. Mr. Hill, of Hen-nock, whose communications we soon learn to value, informs us, that the strata of this substance extend nine miles to the west of the potters' clay, and sometimes run through it, seeming to follow the valley that terminates in Torbay.

1. Though the substance and quality of the Bovey coal, in its several strata, be much alike, and it be all, indiscriminately, used for the same purposes; yet there is some difference in the color, form, and texture of the several veins. The exterior parts, which lie nearest to the clay, have a greater mixture of earth, and are generally of a dark brown, or chocolate color: some of them appear like a mass of coal and earth mixed. Others have a laminous texture; but the laminæ run in such oblique, wavy, and undulatory forms, that they bear a strong resemblance to the roots of trees. There are other veins of this coal, which lie more in the centre of the strata, and abound most in the lowest and thickest bed, the substance of which is more compact and solid. These are as black, and almost as heavy as pit-coal. They do not so easily divide into laminæ, and seem to be more strongly impregnated with bitumen. They are distinguished by the name of stone-coal, and the fire of them is more strong and lasting than that of other veins. But the most curious vein in these strata, is that which they call the wood-coal. It is sometimes of a chocolate color, and sometimes of a shining black. The former sort seems to be less impregnated with bitumen, is not so solid and heavy as the latter, and has more the appearance of wood. It lies in strait and even veins, and is frequently dug in pieces of three or four feet long, and with proper care might be taken out of a much greater length. 2. Other pieces of the same kind are found lying upon them, in all directions, but without the least intermixture of earth, or any other interstices, except some small crevices by which the pieces are divided from each other, in all directions. When it is first dug and moist, the thin pieces of it will bend like horn, but when dry, it loses its elasticity, and becomes short and crisp. At all times it is easily separated into very thin laminæ or splinters, especially if it lie any time exposed to the heat of the sun, which, like the fire, makes it crackle,

separate, and fall to pieces. The texture of this fossil consists of a number of laminæ, or very thin plates, lying upon each other horizontally, in which small protuberances sometimes appear like the knots of trees; but they are only mineral nuclei which occasion this interruption in the course of the laminæ; and pieces of spar have been sometimes found in the middle of this wood-coal. Though the texture of this coal is laminated, yet it does not appear to have any of those fibrous intersections, which are observed in the grain of all wood. This coal easily breaks transversely; and the separated parts, instead of being rugged and uneven, are generally smooth and shining, in which even the course of the laminæ is hardly discernible. 3. The fire made by this coal is more or less strong and lasting, according to its different veins. Those which lie nearest to the clay, having a greater mixture of earth, burn heavily, and leave a large quantity of brownish ashes. That which they call the wood-coal, is said to make as strong a fire as oaken billets, especially if it be set on edge, so that the fire, as it ascends, may insinuate itself between and separate the laminæ. But the heat of the stone-coal is accounted the strongest, though not sufficiently intense for the mines. It is apparently more solid and heavy, and more strongly impregnated with bitumen: when this coal is put into the fire, it crackles and separates into laminæ, as the cannel-coal or candle-coal does into irregular pieces, burns for some time with a heavy flame, becomes red hot, and gradually consumes to light white ashes. Though the transverse crevices made in it by the fire, give it the external appearance of a wooden brand; yet, if quenched when red-hot, the unconsumed part does not look like charcoal, but seems to be almost as smooth and solid, as when first put into the fire. The thick heavy smoke which arises from this coal, when burnt, is very fetid and disagreeable; entirely different from that aromatic scent of the bituminous loam which is found adhering to it, but much resembling that of the asphaltum or bitumen of the Dead sea. The whole neighbourhood is infected with the stench which is wafted by the wind to the distance of three or four miles. When burnt in a chimney, the offensiveness is lessened by the draught; and it is found by those, who live continually in the smoke of it, not to be unwholesome: nor is it in the least prejudicial to the eyes, like the smoke of wood. The most shining and solid pieces of this coal have not the least degree of electrical attraction.' Vol. i. p. 66.

We have selected this passage as containing an accurate and comprehensive account of a remarkable fossil, which lately attracted our attention, in our survey of Mr. Maton's publication. The smell is said, in a note, to arise from its being burned in a wet state; and, as it is described to be hepatic, we believe the remark to be well-founded; for the sulphur must decompose the water.

Among the metals found in Devonshire, tin is of most fre-



quent occurrence. Silver is extracted, it is said, in a considerable proportion from the lead ores: copper and lead are obtained in moderate quantities; but there are no very rich ores of iron. The most valuable semi-metal is manganese. Load-stones are here found; but their power does not seem to be considerable. Antimony and cobalt are also furnished by this county; but these ores are not rich.

Among extraneous fossils we find various petrified shells and echini. It is absurd to class, under this head, a discovery in other respects curious, viz. a large quantity of a fat substance, evidently the *debris* of numerous hogs. They had become that fatty concrete, resembling sperma-ceti, into which animal substances after some time degenerate. It was found on a hill, buried more than twelve feet; and trees of no moderate age and growth had been removed from the place, for the purpose of excavating a pond. Some convulsion of the earth, in a remote period, had probably overwhelmed the animals.

Marks of deluges Mr. Polwhele finds in various parts of this county. Black-down and Haldon have, he thinks, been raised from water by some *volcanic* cause. Indeed, he sees volcanos on numerous occasions; and this is not surprising, when red loam\*, whin-stone, and granite, are, in his opinion, volcanic substances. Even marble, when perforated by animals or irregularly excavated by aerial acid, had almost been considered as belonging to the same class. From better authority than that of this writer, we think that volcanos have been frequent in Devonshire; but the traces do not extend far without marked interruptions. The earthquakes of this county have been few, and not destructive. In a note on a passage from 'MS. Annals of Exeter,' a work of no authority, as its source is unknown, it is said, 'There might have been an earthquake; but the sea could not have ceased from ebbing and flowing, for three months.' Not (we may ask) in a severe winter, when the polar ice could not thaw?

The fifth chapter treats of the indigenous plants of Devonshire. We will quote the abstract.

'If we review this catalogue for a moment, we may observe, that among the herbaceous plants and shrubs, the plants which are most remarkable for their plenty in almost every part of Devon, though scarce in many counties of England, are the fox-glove, the ivy-leaved bell-flower, the viscous *bartisia*, the sweet-gale; that among those which are rare in Devon, though common in many counties

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\* The great argument for considering red loam as a volcanic substance, is, that lava degenerates into an earth of this kind; but there is no necessity for supposing it to be previously fused, as the schist which forms the lava is equally argillaceous.

of England, are the common cowslip, the common eryngo, the common winter-green, the bee-orchis; that, among those which are extremely rare in England, are Venus's navelwort, the autumnal squill, the flowering-rush, yellow-flowered wood-forrel; that among those which grow abundantly in one or in several places in Devon, though scarce plants, are the round-headed club-rush, the small Plymouth rush-grass, small purple sea-spurge, the yellow-horned poppy, the balm-leaved archangel, the Cornish sibthorpia; and that among those which grow in one or two places, though not plentifully, are the panic millet-grass, the sea-bugloss cowslip, soapwort, and the small-flowered mallow. Of our trees, the most conspicuous in this county seem to be the oak and the elm—the least obvious, the beech and the ash, in the native woods of Devonshire.' Vol. i. p. 98.

In this part of the volume, we have a correct account of some trees, particularly oaks and beeches; and arguments are adduced to prove, that the *esculus* was really the oak, and not the horse chesnut, as some respectable authors have supposed. This chapter furnishes, however, a subject for reprehension, in the ridicule and contempt with which Mr. Polwhele's correspondents are treated. One gentleman's remarks are profess-  
edly quoted to *amuse* the reader; yet to him the author is indebted in many pages of the volume. Others are treated with little more ceremony. We will extract the notes of a whole page, to avoid the suspicion of culling passages.

"This plant (*ranunculus flammula*) is *thought* to occasion the rot in sheep." C. Is *thought*—has it been proved to cause the rot? It is equally the cause, I suppose, with the sundew mentioned before. Both plants, it is *thought* by me, are falsely accused. Do sheep eat either of them?"

'Its leaves (those of the *ranunculus sceleratus*) appear early in the spring, and by their freshness tempt cattle to eat them. It generates many disorders both in cows and oxen. It kills men; and they die laughing—whence it is called *apium risus*, *risus fardonicus*—being the *sardonio herba* of Dioscorides. Cr. It is an acrid plant, and therefore may not agree with cattle should they chance to eat it. It may kill men, for aught I know; but C. has, I believe, no authority for saying so, but old saws. Having turned to James's Dispensatory, I have found, I think, his authority for the remainder. "It is called, by many, *scelerata herba*; by others, *apium risus*, which made Guilandinus think it was the *apiastrum* of Pliny, which Dioscorides calls *sardonio*." C. had heard of the *risus sardonius*, the convulsive laugh so called, and gives it here as a synonyme of the plant.'

'It (*helleborus foetidus*) grows wild in many orchards of the Southams, where it is universally the old woman's medicine for



worms—which is astonishing, when we consider the number of children that it has been known to kill. C.—Bearsfoot is a safe medicine, given in a proper manner. In unskilful hands it may, and has I believe, killed many children : but its use in worm cases by old women, is not confined to the Southams.

“It’ (*origanum vulgare*) ‘is not only a pleasant beverage, but excellent in medicine. I knew a woman cured of an epilepsy by drinking about six ounces of a strong infusion of it twice a day, instead of bohea tea.” These solitary facts of Mr. C’s. are not convincing. ‘That the woman’s epilepsy left her I have no doubt ; but was she cured by the marjoram ? Was the former person cured by the tormentil ? Epileptic fits sometimes go off of themselves. Old intermittents with diarrhoea, wear themselves out.’ Vol. i. p. 90.

Devonshire can boast of the eagle, which is sometimes found in its alpine regions ; and a wanderer of this tribe has been killed on its coasts. The merlin, white and pied rooks, the Royston crow (which feeds on the cockle, and obtains its prey by dashing it on the rocks, and thus breaking its shell), the wheat-ear, the crossbill, and the goldfinch, are among the land-birds. On the migration of the swallow, there is a long unsatisfactory note. With regard to water-fowl, we may mention that a few herons breed in Devonshire ; that the common bittern is rare, and does not breed in the county ; that the grey plover is uncommon ; and that swans, the brent and wild goose, and other web-footed fowl, visit the southern coast only in severe winters.

The river fish of Devonshire are not represented as highly delicate ; but the common trout, and a particular species of red trout, are considered in their season as tolerably good. The currents of the rivers are, in general, too rapid for some other kinds of fish, which are valued in different parts of England. The salmon which repair to the Exe and other rivers merely for the purpose of spawning, deserve particular commendation : when they arrive from the sea, they are very luxurious food. Among sea fish, the porpoise, the sting-ray, and the electric ray, are the more uncommon and injurious. Among the luxuries of the table, the inhabitants of the coast boast of the turbot, the dory, the sole, the pilchard, the whiting, and the red mullet. The salmon, as a sea fish, and in its best state, is covered with lice ; and lobsters also have their gills filled with small oblong red animals, when they are in perfection. Among the cartilaginous fish, is the lamprey, which is considered as a great dainty : the bloodless fish of the sea are the lobster, the crab, the prawn, and the shrimp : the testaceous fish are, the oyster, the scallop, the cockle, &c. A curious fact respecting the oyster is thus stated :

‘ The oyster has the power of closing the two parts of its shell with considerable force by means of a strong muscle at the hinge. This circumstance in its natural history, may be illustrated by a curious incident which happened about forty years since, at Ashburton, at the house of Mrs. Aldridge, known by the name of the New Inn. “ In an underground cellar a dish of Wembury oysters was laid by way of coolness: at the time the tide flows, it is well known oysters open their shells to admit the waters and take their food: at this period a large oyster had expanded his jaws, and at the same instant two mice, searching for prey, pounced at once on the victim, and seized it with their teeth: the oyster, shrinking at the wound, closed her shell, collapsing with such force as to crush the marauders to death. The oyster, with the two mice dangling from its shell, was for a long time exhibited as a curiosity by the landlady to her guests. An incident of so uncommon a nature hath been generally considered as unique. With regard to the two mice, it probably may be so, and its oddness is thereby considerably heightened. As to the singularity, however, of the event, I shall produce an apposite instance epigrammatically recorded in the Greek anthology :

Παμφαγῶ ἐρπυστής κατα δωμάτα λυχνοβορος μύς,  
 Οστρεὸν ἀδρησας χεῖλεσι πεπταμένον,  
 Πωγεὸν διερροῖο νόθην ὠδαζατο σαρκα.  
 Αὐτίκα δ’ οστρακοεῖς ἐπλαταγήσῃσι δομῶ,  
 Ἡμῶσθ’ ὀδυνάουσιν. Ὁ δ’, ἐν κλειθροῖσιν ἀφυκτοῖς  
 Ληφθεῖς, αὐτοφόνον ποτμον ἐπέσπασατο.

‘ Which I have thus paraphrased :

‘ Crept from his hole, a taper-eating mouse,  
 Who went to range and nibble thro’ the house ;  
 One night was led by his nose for prey,  
 Where, in the cellar, oysters lay !

‘ One from the rest, he instant spy’d,  
 With gaping jaws extended wide,  
 And, urg’d by hunger—nought deterr’d  
 To seize th’ amphibious creature’s beard ;  
 When, sudden on his startled ear,  
 Burst sounds, that more than mouse might scare ;  
 The portals close—and with portending knell,  
 Include the caitiff in the crushing shell.

‘ Ah ! luckless thief ! unheard thy wond’rous doom,  
 Spontaneous thus, to meet a living tomb !  
 There, where he seiz’d the dread collapsing prize,  
 There, with the victim rent, the victor dies !”

‘ Carew, in his Survey of Cornwall, tells of an oyster that closed its shell on three mice. “ Not long since, says Carew, an oyster, by his sudden shutting, caught, in his own defence, three young mice by the heads, and so trebled the valor of the cleft block, which griped Milo by the hands.” I had imagined, on hearing a vague



account of the Ashburton incident, that the story was stolen from Carew, and thus transferred to Ashburton; but Mr. Tripe informs me, that he himself saw the mice in the situation I have described. 'The oyster had closed on both their heads.' Vol. i. p. 122.

The reptiles of Devonshire are few, and by no means dangerous. The quadrupeds are not uncommon. A kind of wild horse is found on Exmoor, and in some other places: our author's description of this animal we will transcribe.

'Of our hoofed quadrupeds, the horse has the first claim to regard. The activity and good discipline of the British horses struck terror into Cæsar's legions. But to trace out this species is now impossible: those which exist among the indigenæ of Great-Britain, such as the little horses of Devon, Cornwall, and Wales, the hobbies of Ireland, and the shelties of Scotland, though well adapted to the uses of these countries, could never have been equal to the work of war. The horses of Exmoor, and some few of the same breed, on the more extensive downs and moors of Devon, have certainly all the appearance of being indigenous; and are admirably well adapted to the purposes for which they are employed: they are very hardy, and endure great fatigue. Though in general about eleven hands high, and seldom exceeding twelve, they carry heavy burthens up and down precipices with a wonderful agility—a task which larger horses would be incapable of performing. A number of these Exmoor horses are driven every year to a particular spot on the moor, where they are beat for some time, in order to subdue their wildness; (when they are caught, and sold sometimes in lots,) at other times singly—yielding from twenty shillings to twelve guineas each. Few, however, within the last ten years, have brought less than three pounds a horse. A small breed of horses on the Holsworthy moors, and on the downs about Moreton-hamstead, differs little from the Exmoor horses. The horses in general use among the farmers, are a mixture of the indigenous and the German breed. In the south-east parts of Devon, the farmers use horses of a considerable size. To particularise the different sorts of horses used in Devon for the various purposes of the farm, as cart or coach horses, as hunters or as racers, or to endeavour to form a calculation of the numbers so employed, would be idle; since Devonshire, in this respect, differs not from the rest of the island: this, indeed, would be foreign to the subject.' Vol. i. p. 130.

The oxen and sheep of Devonshire have been often noticed by agricultural authors; but, from the historian of the county, we expected some farther account of the latter, and of their fleeces, if indeed, as we have heard, the principal manufacture of Devon be connected with their peculiar qualities. In this respect, however, we may have been misinformed.

*(To be continued.)*

*Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester. Vol. V. Part I. 8vo. 6s Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

WE always return with pleasure to the successive volumes of the transactions of this respectable society; and, in the part which now appears\*, we have not been disappointed in our hopes of entertainment and instruction.

‘Curfory Remarks, Moral and Political, on Party-Prejudice. By Samuel Argent Bardley, M. D.’

Prejudice, that bias of the mind, often invincible, in favour of opinions or of persons, has never been properly examined. It is frequently the incurable curvature of the bow in consequence of being too long or too violently bent: it is sometimes an obliquity of mind, which irresistibly favours one direction, from an original organisation or from frequent or continued impressions. Like the vortex, it carries every opinion, which approaches its exterior circle, to the gulph. *Party* prejudice, the subject of the present essay, is still more unaccountable. The interest is often remote, the object unperceived, and the connection inconsiderable; yet the violence is proportioned to those circumstances which would naturally produce indifference. Temper and interest have, we know, occasionally suffered in the shock; and such is the effect of this species of prejudice on the mind, that honesty and honour have often unconsciously been buried in the same ruin. The writer has traced the history of party from the best periods of Rome to the war of the league. We wish that he had entered more particularly into the subject; and we heartily join with him in recommending a careful guard against prejudices in the education of youth, but without leading the pupil to the confines of scepticism.

‘Extraordinary Facts relating to the Vision of Colours: with Observations. By Mr. John Dalton.’

In this case, the individual can distinguish white, yellow, and green; but blue, purple, pink, and crimson, are less clearly appropriated by him, and are indistinctly referred to blue. In the prismatic spectrum, he in general sees only two colours, yellow and blue; but he sometimes can perceive purple. His yellow comprehends the yellow, red, orange, and green of others: the effect of red is that of a duller blue: pink, by candle light, is yellow and red. In this irregularity of vision, Mr. Dalton’s brother resembles him; and he has collected similar anomalies in the optics of others. The ‘characteristic facts’ we shall select in his own words.

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\* For a review of the immediately preceding part, see our XIXth Vol. New Arr. p. 250.



' 1. In the solar spectrum three colours appear, yellow, blue, and purple. The two former make a contrast; the two latter seem to differ more in degree than in kind.

' 2. Pink appears, by day-light, to be sky-blue a little faded; by candle-light it assumes an orange or yellowish appearance, which forms a strong contrast to blue.

' 3. Crimson appears a muddy blue by day; and crimson woollen yarn is much the same as dark blue.

' 4. Red and scarlet have a more vivid and flaming appearance by candle-light than by day-light.

' 5. There is not much difference in colour between a stick of red sealing wax and grass, by day.

' 6. Dark green woollen cloth seems a muddy red, much darker than grass, and of a very different colour.

' 7. The colour of a florid complexion is dusky blue.

' 8. Coats, gowns, &c. appear to us frequently to be badly matched with linings, when others say they are not. On the other hand, we should match crimsons with claret or mud; pinks with light blues; browns with reds; and drabs with greens.

' 9. In all points where we differ from other persons, the difference is much less by candle-light than by day-light. P. 40.

These facts are explained by a circumstance which is far from being improbable, viz. the supposition, that one of the humours, probably the vitreous humour, of his eye, is a blue medium.

' From the whole of this paper it is evident, that our eyes admit blue rays in greater proportion than those of other people; therefore when any kind of light is less abundant in blue, as is the case with candle-light compared to day-light, our eyes serve in some degree to temper that light, so as to reduce it nearly to the common standard. This seems to be the reason why colours appear to us by candle-light, almost as they do to others by day-light.

' I shall conclude this paper by observing, that it appears to me extremely probable, that the sun's light and candle-light, or that which we commonly obtain from combustion, are originally constituted alike; and that the earth's atmosphere is properly a blue fluid, and modifies the sun's light so as to occasion the commonly perceived difference.' P. 45.

' An Enquiry into the Name of the Founder of Huln Abbey, Northumberland, the first in England of the Order of Carmelites: with Remarks on Dr. Ferriar's Account of the Monument in the Church of that Monastery. By Robert Uvedale, B. A. of Trinity College, Cambridge; Corresponding Member of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.'

This is a reply to Dr. Ferriar's paper, which appeared in the third volume of the Memoirs \*.

'On the Variety of Voices. By Mr. John Gough. Communicated by Dr. Holme.'

The variety of voices is well known: it does not proceed, however, from any variety in a single tone or pulse of air, as it then would only differ in loudness and acuteness. Mr. Gough considers every natural ordinary tone as consisting of *intervals of sound*—that is, a quantity of any kind, terminated by a more grave or a more acute sound: but, in the human voice, and in the tones of sonorous bodies, these intervals are too small to have their terminating sounds accurately distinguished, though they are sufficiently large to produce distinct sensations, corresponding to their relative affections. This principle is satisfactorily supported.

'On the Benefits and Duties resulting from the Institution of Societies for the Advancement of Literature and Philosophy. By the Reverend Thomas Gisborne, M. A. Communicated by Dr. Percival.'

This is a pleasing and elegant essay on the advantages of literary societies. From the obliquity of the human mind, persons who thus associate are frequently considered with jealousy, as assuming, in their separation from those with whom they are otherwise connected, a character of superiority, which is with reluctance allowed.

'On an Universal Character; in a Letter from James Anderson, L.L. D. F. R. S. &c.'

After an introduction, too extensive, and sometimes irrelevant, Dr. Anderson explains his system, which rests on the usual idea of arithmetical figures, speaking to the mind by signs of ideas, rather than words. He has made some efforts to reduce it to practice; but we cannot commend it for simplicity.

'The Inverse Method of Central Forces,' communicated by Dr. Holme, is an addition to the paper on the same subject, given in the fourth volume.

'Observations on Iron and Steel. By Joseph Collier.'

We find nothing very interesting in this article.

'Remarks on Dr. Priestley's Experiments and Observations relating to the Analysis of Atmospheric Air, and his Considerations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston and the Decomposition of Water. By Theophilus Lewis Rupp.'

Our author is a strong advocate for the new chemical system; and he examines, with impartiality and precision, Dr. Priestley's last effort in favour of phlogiston. He finds the arguments inconclusive, and the supposed results untenable.

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\* See our 1st Vol. New Arr. p. 257.



‘ An Account of three Different Kinds of Timber Trees, which are likely to prove a great Acquisition to this Kingdom, both in Point of Profit and as Trees for Ornament and Shade. By Charles White, Esq. F. R. S.’

The three trees, recommended; are the black American birch with broad leaves, the Athenian poplar, and the iron oak with prickly cups. The first seems to be a tree of much promise.

‘ The broad-leaved American black birch, *betula nigra*, Linn. Spec. Plant. 1394, is described by Mr. Aiton in his *Hortus Kewensis*: *B. foliis rhombeo-ovatis, duplicato-ferratis, acutis, subtus pubescentibus, basi integris; strobilorum squamis villosis; laciniis linearibus, æqualibus.* It is a native of Virginia and Canada, and was first introduced into England (where it grows in the greatest luxuriancy and perfects its seeds) by Peter Collinson, esq. in the year 1736. There is no doubt, therefore, that it will soon become very plentiful and cheap. It is very desirable in pleasure grounds, as it is the first forest tree in the spring which presents us with its leaves: these are of a light and lively green. Its bark, which is white, makes, at all times, a beautiful variety when intermixed with other trees. It is said to be the most useful timber tree in North America, for building both of houses and boats, and will grow fast in any soil or situation, whether wet or dry.

‘ Miller, speaking of trees of this description, says, “ they may be propagated by seeds, in the same manner as the common birch tree, and are equally hardy. Some of the trees now begin to produce their catkins in England, so that we may hope to have plenty of their seeds of our own growth, for at present we are supplied with them from America. As these grow more vigorously than the common sort, and thrive on the most barren ground, they may be cultivated to great advantage in England, for their wood is much esteemed in Canada, where the trees grow to a large size; and they are, by no means, an unsightly tree in parks, for their stems are straight, the bark smooth, and their leaves are much larger than those of the common birch, so may be planted in such places where few other trees will thrive.”

‘ Mr. Hanbury says, “ the black Virginian birch, being of foreign growth, is propagated for wilderness and ornamental plantations; but, as it begins now to become pretty common, it is to be hoped it will soon make a figure among our forest trees, it being equally hardy with our common birch, and will arrive at a much greater magnitude. This species will grow to be upwards of sixty feet in height. The branches are spotted, and more sparingly set on the trees than the common sorts. The leaves are broader, grow on long foot stalks, and add a dignity to the appearance of the tree; and as it is naturally of upright and swift growth, and arrives at so great a magnitude in a few years, prudence will direct us to let it

have a share among our forest trees, to plant them for standards in open places, as well as to let them join with other trees of their own growth, in plantations more immediately designed for relaxation and pleasure." I planted one of these trees nineteen years ago, and it is now forty-five feet six inches in height, and three feet seven inches in the girth.' Vol. v. p. 163.

The second is the *populus Græca*. Its stem is upright; the branches are well disposed; and the bark is smooth and silvery. Its leaves are very early in their appearance, and are never injured by insects, or shriveled by blights. When grafted, it grows slowly, and must be propagated by suckers or layers.—The third seems to be a variety of the *quercus ceris*, perhaps the *quercus frondosa* of Aiton. It appears to be a rapid grower, and is, in other respects, an advantageous tree to the planter.

'An Analysis of the Waters of two Mineral Springs at Lemington Priors, near Warwick; including Experiments tending to elucidate the Origin of the Muriatic Acid. By William Lambe, M. A. late fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. Communicated by Dr. Holme.'

The great object of Mr. Lambe, in this paper, is the analysis of the new springs at Lemington Priors, about two miles east of Warwick. These springs were discovered in 1790, by boring to the depth of forty-two feet. The water dissolves metallic substances, and contains some proportions of muriat of iron and manganese. On these salts, much of the difficulty, arising in this inquiry, rests. The metals seem rather to be dissolved in the water by hepatic gas than by any acid; yet the appearances so nearly resemble those which would result from the muriat of iron, that Mr. Lambe supposes muriatic acid to be generated in the process. The fact, however, rather seems to be, that muriatic salts are united with the hepatised solutions, and not carefully separated. The inquiry is rather conducted by synthetical approximations, than by fair analysis.

The neutral salts of the new baths are a large proportion of muriat of soda, and a smaller quantity of sulphat of soda, and sulphat of lime. The muriat of magnesia is in a very small proportion. The sulphat of soda seems to be kept in solution, by salt of manganese; and this effect of compound solutions, a subject not sufficiently examined, we would recommend to the attention of chemists.—The water of the old baths is not very different: its chief saline ingredient is muriat of soda.

'Some Account of the Persian Cotton Tree. By Matthew Guthrie, M. D. F. R. S. &c. Communicated by Dr. Percival.'



This is a short but interesting and useful paper. The vegetable in question was probably carried at an early period to America, where it was propagated so copiously, as to be taken for an indigenous plant of the new continent. It was considered as such by Linnæus; but a British merchant has lately presented a paper to the œconomical society at Petersburg, in which he asserts, that the European nations furnished their American colonies with cotton seed from Smyrna.

‘ The annual cotton is much cultivated in the northern or colder provinces of Persia, bordering on the Caspian sea (as the perennial is in the southern) and it is from thence that the seeds now sent to Portugal have been obtained through the Bucharian Tartar merchants, and are the production of the *gossypium herbaceum* of Linnæus, the *gossypium annuum* of Pallas. It is sown in Persia from the end of March to the end of April, and reaped in September. This species requires a rich soil mixed with sand; and, therefore, where the land is not rich enough, they manure it with cow or sheep dung: although we are told, that when the plants are once raised above the ground any species of soil will answer. The ground is worked in the spring, and the seeds are planted at the distance of eight or ten inches from one another, whilst care is taken to weed it to give air to the young plants. Dry summers give the best crop, as rain is more particularly hurtful when it falls in great quantities during the flowering and ripening of the cotton. It is gathered, as said above, in September, care being always taken to collect a sufficient quantity of seed for the next year. Lastly, watering the young plants with a mixture of wood-ashes and water, in certain situations, is sometimes necessary to guard them from destructive worms.

‘ The Russians have cultivated the same species of Persian cotton in the government of Caucasus, and rear enough of it to serve their own national manufactures, which are not as yet either numerous or considerable; but on the Terck, at the foot of the Caucasus, where it is reared, they do not sow till the middle of May, lest a late spring-frost, which is sometimes felt in those parts, should destroy the hopes of the planter. With that one exception, the Russians strictly observe the Persian mode of cultivation.

‘ There is a species of silky cotton much cultivated at present in Germany, which possibly may merit the attention of Portugal for their plantations in America. It is the *asclepias syriaca* of Linnæus, and affords so fine a species of cotton (if I may so name it) that fabrics have been erected in Saxony where stuffs are made of it, which rival in lustre, &c. the true animal silk. But this new vegetable silk has circumstances attending it that seem to recommend its cultivation in some of the American colonies and islands. First, because it is originally the native of a hot climate, as Linnæus’s specific name indicates; and, of course, it is likely to be in its great-

est beauty and excellence in climates which approach nearest to that of its native country. Secondly, because its stalks afford a coarse sort of cloth well calculated to clothe negroes, whilst from the pith of them paper is made.' P. 218.

A species, remarkable for its fineness, and called, from its original country, 'Siam cotton', is said to be reared in the Antilles.

'Experiments and Observations on the Preparation and some remarkable Properties of the Oxygenated Muriat of Potash. By Thomas Hoyle, jun.'

With pleasure we learn from Mr. Hoyle, that the oxygenated muriat of pot-ash may be prepared at a rate much cheaper than the price now demanded for it by druggists. He describes the mode of preparing the salt, which he found to explode, on friction, with phosphorus, charcoal, sulphur, mercury, arsenic, loaf sugar, fixed and essential oils, spirit of turpentine, camphor, &c. It detonated very slightly with gum arabic, and not at all with Prussian blue, æther, or iron filings. It may not be useless to add, that this muriat, dissolved in the oxygenated acid, is more effectual in destroying colours than any other substance.

'Experiments and Observations on Fermentation and the Distillation of Ardent Spirit. By Joseph Collier.'

It appears from this paper, that the spirituous fermentation is best carried on in close vessels, while the acetous requires the access of free air. The fermentation of saccharine substances is expedited by additional ferments, though some degree of fermentation will be excited by heat alone. The extrication of air in raising bread is a true fermentation, though not carried far enough to produce a vinous spirit.

'I may here observe on the subject of potatoes, that they never answered the expectation which I had formed from the account given by Dr. Anderson. To procure five quarts of spirit from seventy pounds of potatoes appeared very extraordinary; but, from repeated experiments, I am thoroughly satisfied, that it is not possible either by the plan proposed by Dr. Anderson, or any other with which we are acquainted. The farina obtained from seventy pounds of potatoes does not exceed fourteen pounds, (a fact which I have proved by carefully collecting it) and good molasses, by a well regulated fermentation, will not form more than its bulk of spirit; from which it will appear very improbable that ten pints of spirit can be produced from the above quantity of farina.' P. 259.

In fermentation, in open vessels, some of the matter unchanged is carried off, with the different gasses extricated in the process. The admission of different airs did not materially



increase the product; nor did any particular gas appear to deserve the preference. In malting, our author certainly carries the germination of his grain too far. His mode of distillation is undoubtedly an improvement of the common process; but we despair of rendering it intelligible in an abstract.

'Hints on the Establishment of an Universal Written Character. In a Letter to the Rev. Dr. John Kemp. By William Brown, M. D. Communicated by Dr. Holme.'

We here find some 'hints which may contribute to render the formation of an universal character more easy, by establishing a principle on which persons, who may be induced to prosecute this important object, may proceed with a certainty of success.' As a philological disquisition, the essay has merit.

'On the Process of Bleaching with the Oxygenated Muriatic Acid; and a Description of a new Apparatus for bleaching Cloths with that Acid dissolved in Water, without the Addition of Alkali. By Theophilus Lewis Rupp.'

In the employment of the oxygenated muriatic acid, its odour compelled the workmen to apply it in close vessels. In their process, the cloth was not uniformly impregnated. They then repressed the odour by an alkali, which, in Mr. Rupp's opinion, weakens the effect of the acid. He proposes that the alkali should be left out, and has described an apparatus in which the oxygenated acid may be equably applied, without any danger from the fumes. We find that this paper has occasioned a controversy, in which we can here take no part.

'Account of a remarkable Change of Colour in a Negro. By Miers Fisher. Extract of a Letter from Mr. James Pemberton to Mr. Thomas Wilkinson. Communicated by Dr. Holme.'

The hue of the person here mentioned, who thus ceased to be a *negro*, is said to be entirely that of a white man; an observation which is seemingly corrected by the remark, that the skin was like that of a freckly person, certainly not the usual colour of a healthy European.

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*The Nurse, a Poem. Translated from the Italian of Luigi Tanfillo. By William Roscoe. 4to. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

THE author of this poem, Mr. Roscoe informs us, was a native of Nola, who flourished in the sixteenth century. It was not, however, before the year 1767 that the present work was made public by professor Ranza, who discovered it in manuscript, together with the *Podere* of the same writer. Till this discovery Tanfillo was better or rather more known,

'better had he remained unknown', as the author of the *Vendemmiaiore*, an obscene poem, which, in 1559, was stigmatised by Pius IV. who ordered it to be registered in the *Index Expurgatorius*. It is remarkable that, though the *Vendemmiaiore* was the only exceptionable piece by Tanfillo, all his writings were included in the prohibition. Mortified at this rigor, he addressed an ode to the pope, asserting, that, though his poem was licentious, his life had not been so; remonstrating against the inclusion of his innocent productions in the sentence with the culpable piece; and declaring that he was employed in a poem upon the tears of St. Peter, whose merits, he trusted, would atone for his offence, and procure him deserved honour. In consequence of this ode, when the next edition of the *Index Expurgatorius* appeared, not only the innoxious poems, but the *Vendemmiaiore* also, were omitted, as if the repentance of the poet had purified his poem!

The present work might, we think, have been shorter, and consequently better. The following extract will show with what view it was written.

'What fury, hostile to our common kind,  
First led from nature's path the female mind,  
Th' ingenuous sense by fashion's laws repress,  
And to a babe denied its mother's breast?  
What! could she, as her own existence dear,  
Nine tedious months her tender burthen bear,  
Yet when at length it smil'd upon the day,  
To hireling hands its helpless frame convey?  
—Whilst yet conceal'd in life's primæval folds,  
Th' unconscious mass her proper body holds;  
Whilst in her mind distracting fears arise,  
Stranger to that which in her bosom lies;  
Whilst led by ignorance, wild fancy apes  
Uncouth distortions and perverted shapes;  
Yet then securely rests the promis'd brood,  
Screen'd by her cares and nurtur'd by her blood.  
But when reliev'd from danger and alarms,  
The perfect offspring leaps into her arms,  
Turns to a mother's face its asking eyes,  
And begs for pity by its tender cries;  
Then, whilst young life its opening powers expands,  
And the meek infant spreads its searching hands,  
Scents the pure milk-drops as they flow distill,  
And thence anticipates the plenteous rill,  
From her first grasp the smiling babe she flings,  
Whilst pride and folly seal the gushing springs;  
Hopeful that pity can by her be shewn,  
Who for another's offspring quits her own.



' Ah! sure ye deem that nature gave in vain  
Those swelling orbs that life's warm streams contain;  
As the soft simper, or the dimple sleek  
Hangs on the lip, or wantons in the cheek;  
Nor heed the duties that to these belong,  
The dear nutrition of your helpless young.  
—Why else, ere health's returning lustre glows,  
Check ye the milky fountain as it flows?  
'Turn to a stagnant mass the circling flood,  
And with disease contaminate the blood?  
Whilst scarcely one, however chaste she prove,  
Faithful remains to nature and to love.' p. 5.

In one instance the zeal of Tanfillo leads him to an absurd and extravagant assertion. This the translator has noted. With this exception the ensuing passage is beautiful.

' O crime! with herbs and drugs of essence high,  
The sacred fountains of the breast to dry!  
Pour back on nature's self the balmy tide  
Which nature's God for infancy supplied!  
—Does horror shake us when the pregnant dame,  
To spare her beauties, or to hide her shame,  
Destroys, with impious rage and arts accurst,  
Her growing offspring ere to life it burst,  
And can we bear, on every slight pretence,  
The kindred guilt that marks this dread offence?  
—As the green herb fresh from its earliest root,  
Young life protrudes its yet uncertain shoot,  
Or falls, unconscious of the blighting storm,  
A dubious victim, and a shadowy form;  
But she who to her babe her breast denies,  
The sentient mind, the living man destroys;  
Arrests kind nature's liberal hand too soon,  
And robs her helpless young of half the boon.  
—'Tis his, not hers—the colour only chang'd,  
Erewhile thro' all the throbbing veins it rang'd;  
Pour'd thro' each artery its redundant tide,  
And with rich stream incipient life supplied;  
And when full time releas'd the imprison'd young,  
Up to the breasts, a living river, sprung.

' Doubt ye the laws by nature's God ordain'd,  
Or that the callous young should be sustain'd  
Upon the parent breast?—be those your schools  
Where nature triumphs, and where instinct rules.  
No beast so fierce from Zembla's northern strand,  
To Ethiopia's barren realms of sand,  
But midst her young her milky fountain shares,  
With teats as numerous as the brood she rears.

Two breasts ye boast for this kind end alone,  
 That your twin offspring each should have its own.  
 ' Does no remorse, ye fair, your bosoms gnaw,  
 Rebellious to affection's primal law ?  
 Persist ye still, by her mild voice unaw'd,  
 False to yourselves, your offspring, and your God ?  
 Mark but your proper frame—what wond'rous art,  
 What fine arrangement rules in every part ;  
 As the blood rushes thro' each swelling vein,  
 The ruddy tide appropriate vessels strain ;  
 And whilst around the limpid current flows,  
 To shape and strength th' unconscious embryo grows,  
 But when 'tis born, then nature's secret force  
 Gives to the circling stream another course ;  
 The starting beverage meets the thirsty lip,  
 'Tis joy to yield it, and 'tis joy to sip.' P. 11.

From these extracts it will appear that the translation is, as was to be expected from Mr. Roscoe, correct and harmonious. In no instance have we observed that the version is inferior to the original. Of the subject of the poem the translator thus speaks.

' The hope of promoting in some degree the laudable object which the author himself had in view, if it did not lead him to undertake the translation, operated as a chief inducement to lay it before the public. That the character and manners of our countrymen, both in higher and lower life, afford but too much room for reform, is an assertion which may be made without incurring the imputation of moroseness ; but till we can decidedly point out those circumstances which give rise to this laxity, not to say depravity of manners of the present day, it will be to no purpose to adopt measures for their improvement. Of these causes the custom, still so prevalent, of committing the children of the richer and middle ranks of society to be brought up by the poor, is, in the opinion of the translator, one of the most efficacious, and like all other vicious institutions, its effects are injurious to all the parties who engage in it. The reason generally assigned by medical men for promoting a custom which has of late received their almost universal sanction, is, that the mode of living which now prevails in the higher ranks, is such, as renders it impossible for a woman to afford her infant those advantages which are indispensably necessary to its existence and support. But is it possible to conceive a severer satire against the female sex than this assertion implies ? Such it seems is the rage for pleasure and amusement, that it must be gratified even by the sacrifice of the most important duties of life, and by a practice, which if generally extended, would endanger the very existence of the human race. The assistance of a nurse is not then intended as a benefit to the child, but as a licence to the mother to



purſue her gratifications, without thoſe reſtraints which the performance of her own proper and indiſpenſable duties would impoſe upon her, and by the due exerciſe of which ſhe would find her health and her affections equally improved.' p. xiii.

We have peruſed this poem with pleaſure, yet not without a wiſh that the talents of Mr. Roſcoe had been employed upon ſomething more worthy of them. From the mines of Italian poetry England has profited little. Arioſto indeed and Taſſo are known to the Engliſh reader in tame, proſaic, ſpiritleſs tranſlations (for the verſion of the latter, by Fairfax, is unjuſtly neglected), fit only to amuſe ſchool-boys by the intereſt of the ſtory, and bearing the ſame reſemblance to their exquisite originals, as the mere model of a dead face to the countenance when kindled with life. The Inferno of Dante may be particularly mentioned as worthy of tranſlation. If it ſhould not appear adviſable to render the whole of that wonderful and wild poem, Mr. Roſcoe knows how to ſelect with judgment.

We will not conclude without tranſcribing the ſonnet prefixed to Mr. Roſcoe's verſion.

SONNET. To Mrs. R.

' As thus in calm domeſtic leiſure bleſt,  
I wake to Britiſh notes th' Auſonian ſtrings,  
Be thine the ſtrain ; for what the poet ſings  
Has the chaſte tenor of thy life expreſt.  
And whiſt delighted, to thy willing breaſt,  
With roſy lip thy ſmiling infant clings,  
Pleaſed I reflect, that from thoſe healthful ſprings  
—Ah not by thee with niggard love repreſt—  
Six ſons ſucceſſive, and thy later care,  
Two daughters fair, have drank ; for this be thine  
Thoſe beſt delights approving conſcience knows,  
And whiſt thy days with cloudleſs ſuns decline,  
May filial love thy evening couch prepare,  
And ſooth thy lateſt hours to ſoft repoſe.' p. xv.

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*A Guide to the Church, in ſeveral Diſcourſes ; to which are added two Poſtſcripts ; the firſt, to thoſe Members of the Church who occaſionally frequent other places of Public Worſhip ; the ſecond, to the Clergy. Addreſſed to William Wilberforce, Eſq. M. P. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, LL. B. a Preſbyter of the Church of England. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

IF a young man, born of parents who were diſſenters, and accuſtomed to a regular frequentation of the places of worſhip belonging to that claſs of the community, as well as to a diligent

perusal of the scriptures, should put this question to himself, 'Why do I go to the meeting, and not to the church?' and if, in consequence of this thought, he should for a time attend the chapels of the papists, the churches established by law, and the meetings of protestant dissenters, could he be justly censured when he should at length join the church, on being fully convinced of the preservation of the apostolical doctrines in greater purity within the pale of that establishment than in any other system? The author of the present work would, we doubt not, praise the original dissenter for his conduct; if he should join the church of Rome, he would be favoured by the catholics: if he should prefer the presbytery, the elders would make no objection to such an exercise of private judgment. This right of judgment ought, indeed, to be the basis of all religious communion. Without it, the pagan could not have quitted his superstition for the purer light of the gospel, and the protestant could not have separated from the Romish church; nor can any church, resting upon other grounds than a conviction of the purity of its doctrines, stand upon a solid foundation. But, though this right must be allowed by all true Christians, the exercise of it may, from latent prejudice or erroneous judgment, subject an individual to great inconvenience; and, in the exercise of it, the Christian is bound to follow the rules of our Saviour and his apostles. These rules he may misunderstand or misapply; and, though fully convinced of the rectitude of his choice, he may not only appear to others to act (but really may act) erroneously. We therefore agree with this writer only in part, on the subject of private judgment; but he seems to confine it too closely when he makes a distinction between the case of the churches of England and Rome, and the case of the dissenters and the church of England. All parties had a right to separate on a conviction of the errors of others: but they acted improperly in separating, if they did not follow the word of God. When one declares that he is in the right and the other in the wrong, he only says in words what his actions before had manifested: but he cannot settle the controversy; nor will the others be influenced by his arguments.

'Freedom of inquiry' (says our author) 'into the grounds of religion, is readily acknowledged to be the distinguishing principle of the protestant cause. But this principle, if not exercised under proper restraint, will destroy the cause it is designed to serve. That law must be useless, from which every man has a plea of private exemption lodged in his own breast. And all constituted authority in the church must be annihilated, if the right of private judgment in religious matters, in the extent to which it is carried by some people, is to be admitted.' P. 152.



There seems to be a misconception in the phrase — ‘all constituted authority must be annihilated;’ for, before the individual joined the church, this constituted authority was nothing to him; and, when he had joined the church, his union with it was voluntary. His continuance also within the pale must be equally voluntary on his part; for the true church disdains all but voluntary members; and the greatest punishment that it can inflict is to separate an individual from its communion.

From not attending sufficiently to the rights of private judgment, Mr. Daubeny runs into the usual errors respecting the term *schism*; and, indeed, upon the sin of schism and the nature of the church, his arguments appeared to us so similar to those of the catholic writers, that we looked back to the title-page to see to which church he belonged.

‘Looking into the writings of St. Paul, I see schism spoken of as a carnal sin; and that this sin consists in a separation from the communion, and a setting up of teachers independant of the government, and destructive of the unity of the Christian church. A sin which, besides its being the parent of confusion and disorder in the church, is moreover destructive of that charity or brotherly love, by which it was designed that Christians should be joined together.’ P. 45.

The unity of the Christian church is a favourite phrase with the catholics, who, with our author, do not comprehend that this unity consists not in the visible union of members in one community, but in that great union of the members of Christ’s body, dispersed over all parts of the earth, visibly united to communities of different persuasions, but all agreeing in the belief that Jesus is the Messiah, and loving each other.

But, instead of entering minutely into the discussion of controversial points, we will present our readers with the general object of the work in the author’s words, whence they may easily collect the nature of the sentiments which pervade the composition.

‘The established church of this kingdom is a branch of the church of Christ. The congregation to which you are joined, is a manifest separation from it. The teachers to whose care you have committed yourselves, own no relation to that spiritual society, to which all Christians ought to be united. To make use, then, of the language of the primitive church, here is altar set up against altar, and pastor against pastor. From whence it follows, that if there ever was such a sin as that of schism, in any age of the Christian church, it is now to be found among us. It behoves you, therefore, to take this subject into serious consideration. Should our church require any terms of communion with which

you are persuaded you ought not to comply, so long as that persuasion lasts, your separation from the church ought to continue. But it must be remembered at the same time, that your persuasion in this case will be your justification in the sight of God, in proportion only as it has been built upon rational and conscientious conviction. Should it have been taken up from passion or prejudice, or adopted without examination; and should any means of information have been neglected which might have been made use of for the direction of your judgment, your error in this case will be your sin, because it has been derived from your neglect; and your consequent separation from the church will be also a sin; for one sin will not be permitted to be pleaded in excuse for another.' P. 259.

This specimen may perhaps induce our readers to join with us in opinion, that Mr. Daubeny is not likely to meet with success in his attempt to guide the dissenters to the church; but, if we cannot fully approve either his arguments or his authorities in the former part of the work, we with pleasure accede to the greater part of his address to the clergy. In this part, his observations on the poignant severity of Mr. Wilberforce against the clergy are manly and judicious, tempered with great candor to the satirist (if we may so call him) of the order; and he properly discriminates between the unguarded conduct of a few and the serious demeanor of the generality. The latitudinarian sentiments of Dr. Paley are also reprehended with justice and dignity; and, while the clergy are properly sheltered from the envenomed darts of a fierce antagonist, and put upon their guard against the delusions of unlimited liberality, those of one description are mentioned in such a manner as will excite attention to a great abuse in the church. To render that attention more general, we will conclude our article in the words of the present writer.

' But the clergy, some individuals of the body at least, have still more to answer for on this subject. A freedom of opinion on church matters, has led, as it might be expected, to a freedom of practice. Whilst some by their writings, have put the establishment of the church, as it were, quite out of sight; others by their conduct have openly withdrawn Christians from it; by becoming officiating ministers in places of public worship independent of episcopal jurisdiction. How such conduct is consistent with the established government of the church; how the circumstance of a minister of the church taking upon himself to preach in a place of worship unlicensed by the bishop, is to be reconciled with canonical obligation; with what propriety such a minister can, in the liturgy of the church, pray against schism in the place where he is in the actual commission of the sin, are points upon which I feel myself at a loss to determine. For, as I have always understood,



the schism of which such a minister is guilty, strictly corresponds with that sin, against which the apostles and first bishops so loudly inveighed, which consisted in breaking the unity of the church, by a separation of particular congregations from the authority of their respective bishop. But exclusive of this important consideration, there is, moreover (as the subject strikes me) something like two fallacies practised upon this occasion. The proprietors of these separate places of worship, by sheltering them under the toleration act, prostitute an act of the legislature to a purpose for which it was never made. By so doing, what was designed only as an indulgence to those who dissented from the church, becomes ministerial to the actual division of the church itself. This is a fallacy practised upon the legislature.' P. 459.

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*An Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Mental Derangement. Comprehending a Concise System of the Physiology and Pathology of the Human Mind. And a History of the Passions and their Effects. By Alexander Crichton, M. D. Physician to the Westminster Hospital, and Public Lecturer on the Theory and Practice of Physic, and on Chemistry. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

THE science of metaphysics, though disgraced by subtilties and refinements which have rendered it the object of mirth and satire, is certainly of considerable importance; and it does not require that great genius, those extensive speculations, by the aid of which alone it has been supposed to be intelligible, or capable of improvement. It consists in the history of the mind, in an observance of its various functions; and it demands only patient thought and undisturbed reflection. The field, however, is overgrown with weeds; and these, rather than the sterility of the ground, have retarded the progress of the labourer, and diminished his harvest. It is the purpose of the present writer to collect, under fixed principles, a number of loose facts stated in the writings of physicians and philosophers, and to connect them with the functions of the mind, which have been most clearly understood and explained. In our language, one attempt only is mentioned; and indeed it is the only professed publication of this kind—we mean Dr. Arnold's work on the Nature of Insanity. In addition to our remarks on that performance \*, we have had frequent occasion of noticing the subject incidentally; and, if our observations could be conveniently brought together, they would form a system on the subject, as they were written with a general systematic view. Our opinions have not, on the whole, great-

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\* See our LIII<sup>d</sup> and LXII<sup>d</sup> Volumes.

ly differed from those of Dr. Crichton, of which we now proceed to a survey.

‘ The objects of my inquiry (says our author) are the causes of insanity, and the various diseased affections of the human mind, if such an expression can be admitted. The order into which I have arranged these, in consequence of the investigation which has been instituted, is founded on the analogy which the causes of mental derangement have with each other. I make four classes of causes. 1st. Physical or corporeal causes; 2dly, Over-exertion of the mental faculties; 3dly, A disproportionate activity of some of the said faculties; and lastly, The passions, or their influence.’ p. xiii.

The remaining part of the preface contains a more expanded view of the plan, and accounts of the works of those writers who preceded Dr. Crichton. The remarks on Dr. Arnold’s production and that of M. Dufour, in particular, appear to us to be just and apposite.

To the first book, on the physical causes of delirium, are prefixed some observations on irritability and sensibility. In this part of his inquiry, our author has examined Girtanner’s doctrine, that irritability arises from, and is proportioned to, oxygen; but this was too trifling, and too distant from his principal object, to require a minute investigation, though we allow that his arguments are just, and that he has completely succeeded in destroying that visionary system. When he denies that irritability is connected with a fibrous structure, because it is found where no fibres can be detected, he is, in our opinion, too rash. The medusa, for instance, at first sight seems most distant from a fibrous structure, though irritable; but Spalanzani, after a close examination, has discovered fibres in this imperfect animal, particularly in the parts most irritable; nor can Dr. Crichton’s argument be admitted, before we are certain that we know the tenuity of the nervous fibre in its ultimate state of division, and the extent to which it may be covered with a mucilaginous or gelatinous substance, without ceasing to be irritable. Irritability, we know, is never proportioned to the sensibility of an organ; but, from the fullest view of the subject, we are not prepared to deny, that it consists in a principle distinct from the nervous. It is the consequence of a peculiar organization of the muscle, deriving activity from the nerves of the organ.

On the subject of sensation, Dr. Crichton is copious and correct. The change produced in the brain by the previous impression on the nerves, he calls *sensorial impression*. This, he thinks, occasions a corresponding change in the mind, which he calls *mental perception*. We have repeatedly explained ourselves on this subject: we can see nothing farther than the sensorial impression, without meaning to add, that no



third link exists. This doctrine, we have also endeavoured to show, is not materialism, or involved in its usual consequences; and, until we can see instances of mind acting independently of body, we must consider this last step as at least useless in a physiological view.

Having examined the nature of nervous impression, Dr. Crichton concludes, that, from the cineritious part of the brain, a fine fluid is secreted, which contributes to give softness and pulpiness to the nerves; and that this fluid, when compressed in any part, communicates the 'figure of impression' to the adjoining portions, and thence to the brain. The fluid seems to be elastic; but he does not think that it resembles æther, or any of the rarer fluids which have been assigned by speculatists to this purpose; much less does he confide in those opinions which attribute the communication to the nerves themselves, either as elastic strings, or contractile organs.

This hypothesis of sensation is afterwards applied to the external senses, but not with extraordinary success. What relates to hearing is erroneous, since our author considers the best *media* of sound as being elastic, and is not aware that air is one of the worst, and water one of the best, conductors of it. On the other hand, what relates to sight and some of its phenomena, is philosophical and correct.

There is another kind of sense, which Dr. Cullen would have called a sensation of consciousness, and which the Germans style self-feeling: we allude to that consciousness which we have of a general healthy or morbid state and its degrees. This is supposed to reside in the extremities of all the nerves, those of the five senses excepted.

All causes which produce pleasure or pain are supposed to increase the action of the arteries which accompany the nerves. Whatever gives a moderate excitement, is thought to produce pleasure; what occasions a diminished excitement, causes uneasiness; and the derangement of a nerve is the cause of pain. This may be, *in general*, true; but the exceptions and modifications will be numerous. Dr. Crichton attributes too much to chemical stimuli. We may instance hunger, which does not arise from any stimulus, since it may be counteracted, as in the Indian method, by external pressure, or internal distension, from substances neither absorbent nor alimentary.

In the fifth chapter, the writer proceeds to delirium, and properly distinguishes what have been styled erroneous perceptions, by the term *diseased*, since many erroneous perceptions are not maniacal or delirious. The exciting causes of delirium are,

‘ 1st. Physical, or corporeal causes; such as too great determination of blood to the head, as in fevers, or intoxication, diseased viscera of the abdomen, poisons, excessive discharges, &c.

‘ 2dly. Too great, or too long continued exertion of the mental

faculties, as in the delirium which often succeeds long continued and abstract calculation; and the deliria to which men of genius are peculiarly subject.

‘ 3dly. Strong passions, such as anger, grief, pride, love, &c.’  
P. 141.

In many instances of delirium, there is a præternatural determination of blood to the head; perhaps in every one there is a determination of this kind, or a fixed cause of continued irritation within the brain. On the former conclusion, the following remarks are subjoined.

‘ 1st. We observe that a mere increased determination of blood to the head, provided the circulation be so free that a great congestion does not arise, is not the cause of delirium, since in the cases of severe exercise, and in many fevers, where the pulse beats 120 in a minute, and the face is flushed and full, no such phenomenon takes place.

‘ 2dly. That an increased quantity of blood sent to the head, or the quickness with which it circulates there, are not the immediate causes of delirium, is further evinced by this fact, that the delirium of fevers, and many cases of phrenzy, begin when there is very little quickness of pulse, and often continue after that symptom is greatly subsided.

‘ 3dly. Dissections demonstrate in the clearest manner that although a vast variety of morbid appearances have been detected within the heads of delirious people, especially phrenetic \* patients, yet there is no one which has been uniformly present in all analogous cases; and therefore there is no reason to believe that any one of them is to be considered as the immediate cause of the alienation of mind, but rather as accidental effects, arising from various causes which have occurred either previous to the commencement of the disorder, or during its attack. Tumours of various kinds, ossifications of arteries, and the membranes enveloping the brain, hydatids, stony concretions, increased vascularity, diminished vascularity, coloured spots, increased density, increased specific gravity; præternatural laxity, ulceration, ruptured vessels, extravasations of blood, lymph, and serum, not only on the surface, but in the cavities and in the substance of the brain; and independent of all these appearances, a vast variety in the form of the skull, has been detected in various cases. The chief circumstance, however, which proves that they are rather consequences than causes of any particular disease, is, that they have been found not only in phrenetic patients, but also in idiots, melancholic patients, hysterical ones, paralytic ones, and epileptic people.

‘ 4thly. In all cases of that peculiar kind of delirium called phrenzy, the first phenomenon of disease appears to be a disordered state of sensorial feeling, if the expression be permitted. All im-

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\* The proper word is *phrenetic*.



pressions on the brain are powerfully felt there. Those derived from the external senses, if they are calculated to excite any desire, or passion, do so in a most uncommon degree; and the reaction of these mental impressions disorder the whole frame. The person acts as if from an involuntary impulse, which does not admit of the operations of reason. Hurry, uncommon strength, bustle, and violence, characterize all the actions and expressions of the patient; every thing creates an uncommon excitement of nervous energy in him.' P. 165.

' Upon the whole, I conclude that the delirium of maniacs, when it has the peculiar character of that which has been described, always arises from a specific diseased action of those fine vessels which secrete the nervous fluid in the brain. This diseased action appears to be one which, independent of its specific nature, by which it is distinguished from common inflammation, or scrophula, is a preternaturally increased one; and this I think is proved by the quickness of the external senses, the irascibility of mind, the heat of the skin, the flushed countenance, and uncommon energy of body which maniacs evince. This hypothesis explains the reason also why it often has periodical exacerbations, and remissions. They who believe that tumors, ulcers, and ossifications of the brain, or increased specific gravity, or increased hardness of the same, give birth to mania, must necessarily be at a loss to explain why the delirium ever ceases while such causes exist; but if it arises from diseased action, it must cease, and may, or may not return, according as a variety of other circumstances conspire to its re-excitement.

' All the phenomena of the phrenzy of maniacs are either diseased feelings, or aberrations of the mental faculties.

' That diseased feelings should arise from diseased action of the arteries of the brain, or of the nervous system, is easily understood, since in fact every change in the physical state of the nerves produces of itself a diseased sensation; and independent of this, it necessarily alters all impressions of external bodies which are transmitted through these parts.

' Upon what general principle the aberration of the mental faculties is to be accounted for in such cases, by those who believe the mind to be essentially distinct from the brain, will be shewn in the chapter on memory, in which this curious inquiry comes more naturally before us than at present.

' The fine vessels of the brain and nerves which secrete the fluid principle, on which sensation depends, must be subject to all the laws of irritability which regulate the action of the other vessels of the human body. If they are capable of being excited into too great action, whether it be of a specific kind or not, they are also subject to torpor after it.

' But if the principle on which sensation depends be too scantily

secreted, delirium may arise; for in this case impressions, *ab interno*, are weakened before they reach the mind, and consequently those which spring up there from the association of ideas, or which are excited by diseased bodily feelings, acquire a disproportionate vivacity; that is to say, without being stronger than they are in general, they appear more vivid, on account of the weakness of the impressions of external objects. The patient, therefore, naturally believes that they have a real existence, and his discourse and actions spring from this source.

‘ In such a delirium, attention is greatly and necessarily diminished, and therefore the ideas are not so permanent as in maniacal phrenzy, where the patient is often agitated by one thought only for a considerable length of time; hence the images which present themselves to the mind of those who labour under this low kind of delirium, are often transitory, and their discourse is consequently very incoherent.’ P. 174.

It is observed, that, if no congestion be formed, no rapidity of circulation will produce phrensy. The remark, however, must be understood with some limitations, and particularly this, that the brain has received no local injury. It often happens, that patients are phrenetic only when causes of general excitement have occurred; and this has been observed where tumours or other local diseases have been found in the brain, or where local injury has been known to exist, in consequence of previous violence from wounds. In fevers, it must be admitted, phrensy occurs, when the pulse is not uncommonly quick or strong; but there may still be a local congestion in the head. Even such phrensies begin with fullness of the face, inflamed eyes and very acute sensations; and dissections show, that the brain is unusually full, or the effects of such fullness have been found in abscesses, or in that dissolved state of the brain which resembles gangrene. Though the general appearances, on dissection, are various, yet they meet in one point, and show that some cause of irritation exists, or that the effects of such previous irritation may be observed; nor is any argument to be drawn from the occasional cessation of mania, while the fixed cause exists, since it often acts only as a predisposing cause, as in those who from previous fracture or depression of the skull are subject to fits of phrensy, only when other causes of excitement concur.

In general, Dr. Crichton is constrained by his theory, to acknowledge only two causes of phrensy, viz. too copious, or too sparing, a secretion of the nervous fluid. He overlooks a principal cause—an unequal distribution of the nervous influence. *His* causes can scarcely ever operate to produce the different kinds of delirium; for we have seen, that, even in the low kind, there are marks of increased excitement



in the brain ; and, in the highest kind, while the mental functions are most powerfully excited, the extremities are cold, their sensibility is impaired, and the heart and arteries, except in the true phrensy, are not greatly affected. All the causes will seemingly meet in the hypothesis of an unequal distribution of the nervous influence ; and we consider the secretion of a nervous fluid as too uncertain a basis.

The superiority of intellect in man, compared with other animals, is connected with, if it depend not on, the size of the brain. This bulk of the organ is not necessary for the vital or the animal motions, since children have been born in health where the brain was deficient, and the nerves seemed to unite only in a very minute mass. It must therefore be supposed to be subservient to intellectual operations ; and this extensive communication, while free, is probably necessary for associated ideas, for extent of memory and freedom of reasoning. If this be true, a partial excitement of any part, or any obstacle to the free communication of impressions, must be attended with derangement of the intellectual powers ; and, almost in every instance, the first symptoms of delirium appear to be irregular or erroneous associations. A portion of the brain, indeed, is sometimes destroyed, and local diseases have appeared in its substance, without any delirium or only with occasional derangement, when other causes, either mental or bodily, have concurred. This, however, forms no objection. The brain is constituted in every one for the various purposes for which its functions can be exerted ; but its strongest exertions are seldom required, and many ‘ mute inglorious Miltons ’ have sunk undistinguished to the grave. If therefore any defect or obstacle to the full freedom of communication be found, it is not probable that exigencies will occur, in which it may be required. If they occur either by excitement of the arterial system, or the exertion of the mental functions, the injury is discovered, though often overlooked, and the moment is considered as unfit for mental exertion. Many are delirious only when inflamed with wine ; some women on the fullness occasioned by pregnancy, or the accumulation of blood previous to menstruation. Many are in part so, from the perception of numerous images, rapidly presented to the mind ; and some from intense study. We therefore think, on the whole, that the excess or defect of nervous energy will not explain the symptoms of delirium, but that we must look for another cause, which is probably an unequal excitement.

The general symptoms of delirium ; its predisposing and exciting causes, &c. are detailed in this work with propriety and accuracy. Hypochondriasis is also correctly described ; and the questions in what view, and in what degree, it may be accounted hereditary, are well stated.

We were particularly pleased with the chapter on hypochondriasis; and our author's opinion, that, when it arises from diseased viscera, the erroneous fancies of the patients generally concern their own frame, while, in the mental hypochondriasis, they relate to external affairs, is, we think, ingenious. But we are inclined to imagine, that the origin of hypochondriasis is always mental, and the affection of the viscera secondary, since we can more easily perceive the influence of the mind on the viscera, than the contrary.

The second book contains the natural and morbid history of the human mind; in other words, its physiology and pathology. Dr. Crichton enlarges too much on the forms of matter, and the arrangement of molecules, which are irrelevant to the subject of an immaterial principle. He thinks, that there is 'a certain point or place within the head where all the nervous sensations terminate, and where they unite and become objects of perception or thought.' The principle, which perceives, he calls mind, and distinguishes it from brain. This opinion we cannot controvert, since it is beyond the reach of our faculties; the image is traced to the brain, and we then become conscious of it, by means which we cannot understand. Dr. Crichton, with more propriety, distinguishes the *faculties* of mind—those, for instance, of perception, association, memory, &c. and discriminates, from these, *two principles*, consciousness and volition. He calls them principles, as they do not modify our thoughts, but are excited to action by them. The defence of the existence of the immaterial principle is very able; and the remarks, in opposition to Dr. Priestley, are pointed and just.

The chapter on attention, possesses great merit. The faculty and the power of attention are undoubtedly very different; for the faculty is the same, whether it be exerted or not. That attention is subject to will, as Dr. Crichton contends, we dare not affirm. On examining ourselves, we are rather inclined to think that it is not: we cannot force the attention, but we can enforce our application, and the subject fixes the mind. The difficulty of fixing the attention seemingly consists in the mixture of other considerations with those to which we would attend.

The succeeding chapter is on mental perception, and our author supports the opinion of Aristotle on this subject, in opposition to Dr. Reid, and some other philosophers, though we strongly suspect, that Aristotle meant, by species, sensible images. In this chapter, Dr. Crichton explains one circumstance, which, at times, perplexed us in our examination of his work. He observes, that the sensorial impression is only a continuation of nervous impression, and therefore perhaps did not require a new appellation. It is, in reality, the



change produced in the organs of sense, carried to the mind for its observance and its determination to action. A disease of this faculty is said to be fatuity; but this seems a bodily disorder from an original defect of organization; ennui from a want of sufficiently frequent or vivid impressions; and vertigo from their being too numerous and rapid. Yet these are bodily disorders produced by causes which act wholly on the material system. They are not to be cured by any attention or regard to the mind. Ennui, which appears to be more particularly a mental affection, is, in reality, only torpor, from inaction of mind: the person who feels it, like the horse that is too dull to be excited by the whip, requires the spur.

Memory, our author informs us, should have a more appropriate term, and be styled recollection, to distinguish it from recognition; the latter being only recollection, when the subject is again brought before the mind; the other a mental exertion, without any assistance. Recollection, he thinks, is wholly dependant on the association of ideas; and he defends Mr. Hume's principles of association against the objections of the later metaphysicians. Mr. Hume, he remarks, speaks only of the association of ideas; his critics treat of those of emotion, &c. which formed no part of his subject. The scientific association, first suggested by the abbé Condillac, is indeed an exception: it consists in the scientific arrangement of a new idea, with those related to it, and is of course recalled by the association of its correlate ideas, not by that of time, or place, or other connections. With respect to the causes of memory, our author rejects the system of vestiges; yet, for the reasons assigned by its supporters, which are very fairly stated, we are inclined to think it the effect of some corporeal impression. He has remarked, that tonics will restore it, after fever. Time and proper remedies will restore it completely, after fractures of the skull, apoplexies, &c. We knew a man, who, after a concussion of the brain, could not reckon more than three without confusion, and knew nothing of the course of husbandry on his estate for some years previous to the accident. Afterwards he possessed his faculties entire, and had a perfect recollection of almost every circumstance of his former life. This is not a solitary or a peculiar instance. How these various circumstances can be reconciled with corporeal vestiges, we know not; yet the phænomena of dreaming seem to show that these probably take place; for, as we have often had occasion to remark, we never knew any images presented in dreams, which had not their prototypes in external impressions.

The last chapter of the first volume relates to judgment; and it demands our unqualified approbation.

*(To be continued.)*

*The Reconciliation: a Comedy, in five Acts. Now under Representation at the Theatre Royal, Vienna, with unbounded Applause. Translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. 8vo. 3s. Ridgway. 1799.*

THE English reader is now qualified to judge of the merit of Kotzebue, as so many of his dramatic pieces have been translated. Possessed of uncommon, and indeed unsurpassed, talents, he writes with the careless rapidity of our English play-mongers, contents himself with the applause of an audience, and rather seeks present profit than future fame. With the despotism of genius, he commands our feelings, and, with the ardour of a reformer, directs them in favour of his own opinions. The Reconciliation partakes less of his opinions, and less of his faults, than any of his former plays, Benyowsky excepted; but it partakes equally of his talents.

The story of the comedy is briefly this. The twin brothers, Frank and Philip Bertram, have been long at variance, each claiming a garden, the title to which, after fifteen years of litigation, is not yet decided. Both brothers have good feelings; but Eyterborn, the lawyer, has an interest in preventing their reconciliation; and Mrs. Grim, Frank's housekeeper, continually misrepresents to him the conduct of his brother and niece, in hope of securing his property to herself. The character of this lady may be understood from the following scene, between Frank and his old servant.

‘ *Jack.* (Good-naturedly.) Good day to you, captain.

‘ *Frank.* Good day to you, Jack.

‘ *Jack.* This is your birthday, sir.

‘ *Frank.* I know.

‘ *Jack.* I am heartily rejoiced at it.

‘ *Frank.* I know that likewise.

‘ *Jack.* You yesterday broke your sea foam tobacco-pipe.

‘ *Frank.* Well, Jack booby, what business have you to put me in mind of it? It was a cursed foolish trick. You must know, doctor, I suffered last night most confoundedly in that great toe. Your bath of muriatic acid, that your Mr. Rowley, or what you call him, has so much recommended, wouldn't do; and so, I smack'd the pipe on the floor, and dash'd it to a thousand pieces: that didn't mend matters neither. But mind ye, Jack Buller, all men will play foolish tricks, but I have met none yet, that liked to be put in mind of them.

‘ *Jack.* I meant no harm, sir; it was to serve only as a kind of introduction. I have bought this wooden head, and a tube to it of ebony: if it be not too coarse, and captain Bertram would do me the favour to accept of a trifle, on his birthday, of old Jack—

‘ *Frank.* Is that it? Come, let's look at it,



' *Jack*. It's not sea-foam, sure enough. But then, captain Bertram will remember, that Jack Buller's love for his master is not altogether mere foam, neither.

' *Frank*. Hand it, old boy.

' *Jack*. It ought to have a silver edging, I know ; but Jack couldn't afford it.

' *Frank*. Thank ye.

' *Jack*. Will you keep it, sir ?

' *Frank*. Surely.

' *Jack*. And will you smoke out of it ?

' *Frank*. Most certainly. (*Putting his hand in his pocket.*)

' *Jack*. (*Observing what he is about.*) And you will not return me any thing for it ?

' *Frank*. (*Withdrawing his hand suddenly.*) No, no ; you are right.

' *Jack*. Hurah ! Now, Mrs. Grim may bake her cake of cabaged groats, if she please.

' *Frank*. Fie, Jack. What do you say ?

' *Jack*. Truth. I am just come out of the kitchen. She is making the devil of a fuss about her cake, and yet she must be told this very morning, that to-day was her master's birthday. I have been enjoying it these four weeks.

' *Frank*. And because you have a better memory, you would blame the poor woman ? Shame on ye !

' *Jack*. And please your honour, the woman is a good-for-nothing—

' *Frank*. Avaft !

' *Jack*. Yesterday she was to make you a wine soup, but she used beer as a substitute ; and to-day, by way of making it up, she treats you with a cake.

' *Frank*. Hold your tongue.

' *Jack*. She'll let you want your very necessaries ; mustn't you beg for a clean shirt, as if it were alms ?

' *Frank*. (*Passionately.*) Hold your tongue ; I bid ye.

' *Jack*. When you was bled last year, she had whole boxes full of linen, and there wasn't as much as a bandage for her master. Wasn't I obliged to tear my Sunday's shirt to pieces in a hurry to let you have one ?

' *Frank*. Jack, you have a scandalous tongue. Go to the devil with your pipe. (*Throwing it at his feet.*)

' *Jack*. (*Looking wistfully, alternately at the pipe, and at his master.*) I a scandalous tongue ?

' *Frank*. Yes.

' *Jack*. You won't have my pipe ?

' *Frank*. No ; I'll take nothing of a fellow that will be good alone.

' [*Jack vexed, takes the pipe, and throws it out of the window.*]

' *Frank*. Fellow ! what are you about ?

‘ *Jack.* Throwing that pipe out of the window.

‘ *Frank.* Are you mad?

‘ *Jack.* What must I do with it? You won't have it; and I would certainly not once smoke out of it in all my life; as often as I puff out the smoke, I must say to myself, “Jack Buller, thou art a wretch; the man whom thou hast served honestly and truly for thirty years, has called thee a scandalous babbler.” And then I must each time weep like a child. But when the pipe is once gone to pot, I shall forget it. I'll think my poor master was ill, and meant no harm.

‘ *Frank.* (*Affected.*) Jack, come hither. (*Shaking him by the hand.*) I meant no harm.

‘ *Jack.* (*Kissing his hand.*) I knew that. I have the best heart for you, sir; and when I say, that such an old hypocrite cheats you, and lives luxuriously on the money you have earned with so much trouble, my blood boils.

‘ *Frank.* Are you at it again?

‘ *Jack.* Deal by me as you like. But I am launched; and all must come out now. Two days ago I by chance made a discovery:—In my garret there is by the side of the fire-grate a hole in the floor with a slider to it; whoever built this house must have had his reasons for leaving a hole just at that place. I was standing there busy rummaging among my old rags, when the slider struck my sight. How! thinks I to myself, what may that be for? and so I knock'd my foot against it, the slider gave way—and look ye there—you may have a peep through it into Mrs. Grim's little chamber.

‘ *Frank.* And listen, if you have a mind?

‘ *Jack.* And listen, if one loves one's master.

‘ *Frank.* Well, and what have you discovered there?

‘ *Jack.* That mischief maker, Eyterborn, teaches her to sharpen and hook the arrows which she shoots at your strong box.

‘ *Frank.* (*Passionately.*) Avast, fellow, avast! Has the devil got the better of you, to make you alight to-day on every bright mirror, like some impudent fly? Eyterborn, the most honest man in town—

‘ *Jack.* I should think that honesty, if it be of the right sort, ought to stand the look of any one that peeps at it through a hole in the garret.

‘ *Frank.* Old boy, thou givest me to-day a peep into the very hold of thy heart.

‘ *Jack.* So much the better: my ballast is love and fidelity for my master.

‘ *Blum.* I think it worth while at any rate to inquire into the business.

‘ *Frank.* And so I will. I will hop up into the garret with my lame foot, and there—I can hardly pronounce the mean word—



and there listen. But God have mercy on thee, fellow, if thou hast belied me, I'll turn thee out of doors without mercy.

' *Jack.* (*Good-natured.*) Ah, but you wouldn't.

' *Frank.* What ?

' *Jack.* No ; you wouldn't.

' *Frank.* (*In a passion.*) But I will, I tell thee ; I will by Jove ! And if you say one single word more, I'll turn you out immediately.

' *Jack.* Well, then old Jack Buller goes to the hospital.

' *Frank.* (*Affected by these words.*) To the hospital ! What !—What would you do there ?

' *Jack.* What else but die ?

' *Frank.* Thou die in an hospital ! Eh ! dost think I cannot take care of thee, if even I turn thee out of my house ?

' *Jack.* Oh, yes ! I know you are the man who would throw a purse of money at me, sufficient to support me while I lived ; but I had rather beg my bread than pick up the money thus thrown at me.

' *Frank.* Rather beg your bread ? There is a proud fellow for you !

' *Jack.* Whoever dislikes me, must not make me a present.

' *Frank.* Do you hear, doctor ? Isn't it enough to give a man a fit of the gout, that hadn't it ? When, four-and-twenty years ago, we fell into the hands of the Algerines, and the pirates had torn my very jacket from my back, that fellow had concealed a couple of gold pieces in his tail : no one found them out. Six months afterwards we were ransomed. We got off with our lives and our freedom, but I was as naked as my hand ; and must have begged my way home, (*in a faltering voice*) hadn't that fellow there shared his gold pieces with me : and now (*in the tone of passion*) he talks of dying in a hospital.

' *Jack.* (*Repentant.*) Captain—

' *Frank.* And when my crew had mutinied, and he revealed the plot at the hazard of his life—Hast thou forgot that, fellow ?

' *Jack.* You built my old mother a house for that.

' *Frank.* And when we engaged that brave Frenchman, yard-arm to yard-arm ; when his broadsword stood over my head, and thou didst lame the hand that was going to send me to my fathers—Hast thou likewise forgot that ? Have I built thee a house for that ? Wilt thou still die in an hospital ? wilt thou ?

' *Jack.* My good master !—

' *Frank.* Do you mean I should like to have these words engraven on my tomb-stone : " Here lieth an ungrateful dog ? " Immediately tell me you will die under my roof, you rogue ! Come, shake hands.' P. 50.

Philip Bertram is poor, and recovering from illness. His physician exerts himself to reconcile the brothers, discharges

Philip's debts, and informs him, that it was his brother who paid them. This conduct is not wholly disinterested in Dr. Blum. An Englishman, we believe, will associate with this name the ideas of age and formality. Dr. Blum, however, is sufficiently young and amiable to obtain the heart and hand of Philip's daughter Charlotte; and, as this alliance relieves the poverty of Philip, his pride no longer prevents him from seeking a reconciliation with his brother. Charlotte goes to visit her uncle: Mrs. Grim will not admit her, and she is unwillingly retiring when Jack Buller enters.

' *Jack.* And you are not permitted to see the captain! who has prevented you?

' *Mrs. Grim.* I have.

' *Jack.* But, Mrs. Grim, by what right?

' *Mrs. Grim.* Never trouble your head about that: I know what I am about: you had better let miss go, master sleeps.

' *Jack.* Sleeps! I have been with him within these last ten minutes, and he bid me come back and read to him in the great book that tells of sea voyages. Stop but a minute, miss, I'll let him know directly.

' *Charl.* I'll stop with great pleasure.

' *Mrs. Grim.* (*Standing before the door.*) Jack you shan't: I won't have you let him know.

' *Jack.* Mrs. Grim, I am apt to think the devil is in you. (*Shoving her aside, and going into his master's room.*)

*Mrs. Grim.* What! Shove me about in that there manner!—Pinch blue and black marks on my arms!—that ruffian!—Well, miss, I wish you joy, (*with a sneer, and curtsying.*) Have you got off your part well? Do, now, flatter and coax your uncle for his dollars, do.

' *Charl.* I wish for nothing but his affection.

' *Mrs. Grim.* Ah, sure! That sounds sweet enough; but we know the key of that music—at the bottom it is nothing but disguised beggary.

' *Charl.* Dear Madam, in what have I offended you?

' *Mrs. Grim.* You, me!—in nothing—nothing at all. Good, miss, there are certain folks, that of certain folks couldn't take an offence in any shape; and if certain folks chose to repeat what report says of certain folks, certain folks wouldn't venture to lift up their eyes, for shame. But who mixes with the wash will be eaten by the swine; and a good christian can do no more than offer up his prayers for the punishment of sinners. Your servant, miss, (*curtsying low.*) [Exit.

' *Charl.* Our old Ann was right. That woman seems to be a downright termagant—but I am glad she is gone; now I can speak freely. If it be true, that my uncle is so passionate, so boisterous: my father's happiness is at stake. Courage Charlotte, a bad quarter



of an hour has no more than fifteen minutes ! I hear some one come : oh, how my heart beats ! (*Stopping with symptoms of fear, in the back ground.*)

*Enter FRANK BERTRAM and JACK.*

\* *Frank.* (*sitting down in a chair, without looking at Charlotte.*) My niece ! what does she want ?

\* *Jack.* I don't know ; but her look is so meek, I'd swear she brings good news.

\* *Frank.* (*after some pause.*) But what is become of her ?

\* *Jack.* She is standing yonder.

\* *Frank.* I am to limp to her, very likely !

\* *Jack.* Step forward, come near, good miss.

\* *Charl.* (*hesitating, fearful, and remaining on the same spot.*)

\* *Frank.* (*listening if she approaches.*) I hear nothing.

\* *Jack.* She trembles.

\* *Frank.* Zounds ! What does she tremble for ?

\* *Charl.* (*approaching a few steps.*) I—I—

\* *Frank.* (*to Jack, who stands by his chair.*) Well, can't she talk ?

\* *Jack.* She is crying.

\* *Frank.* What the devil is she crying for ?

\* *Charl.* (*taking courage*) I am come, dear uncle, to compliment you.

\* *Frank.* (*roughly.*) On what occasion ?

\* *Charl.* On your birth-day.

\* *Frank.* You, likely, have been taught to walk of late, as you only come to-day for the first time.

\* *Charl.* Ever since I had the faculty of thinking and feeling, my heart has attracted me hither.

\* *Frank.* Has it ! How old are you ?

\* *Charl.* Seventeen years.

\* *Frank.* Ay, ay, on my return, sixteen years back, you were a little thing, not bigger than my fist.

\* *Charl.* At that time, my dear uncle carried me in his arms, and was fond of me. Old Ann has often told me, and I listened with pleasure.

\* *Frank.* Your good uncle was, then, a good-natured fool.

\* *Charl.* I have lost my good mother very early.

\* *Frank.* Your mother was a good woman, a very good woman.

\* *Charl.* Had she lived, many things might not have happened.

\* *Frank.* May be ; she has hindered your father from playing many a foolish trick.

\* *Charl.* My father may have erred ; bad people may have led him astray ; but they have never been able to erase from his heart, his affections for his only brother.

\* *Frank.* He has given me excellent proofs of this affection these fifteen years.

' *Charl.* That is over now. The court of conscience has thrown a veil on what is passed. Go to my brother, said my father to me, be thou the harbinger of peace; he will not reject thee, thou art innocent. He has been fond of thee, when a child; he has been fond of thy mother; for her sake he will tender thee his hand, and thou wilt kiss it with infantile affection.

' *Frank.* (*Still without looking at her.*) Sure! You can't help it. You must dance as he pipes. I have nothing against you. Go, child, God bless you.—What's your name?

' *Charl.* My name is Charlotte.

' *Frank.* Charlotte; right. Nay, I think, I am your godfather.

' *Charl.* Oh! the man, who received me among the Christians; he, who promised me tenderness and affection, when I could not yet articulate a syllable, that man will not send me out of his house, without deigning to cast a friendly look on me.

' *Frank.* (*throwing a transient glance at her, yet without fixing her in the eye.*) Very well. You may go. You will not be omitted in my will.

' *Charl.* That was cruel.

' *Frank.* (*passionately.*) Cruel! Why cruel?

' *Charl.* Dear good uncle, I wanted to be remembered in your heart, and not in your will.

' *Frank.* (*goodnaturedly, and somewhat embarrassed.*) Ah, to be sure—but I also must—I am your godfather, you know—and as you have had the trouble to call—(*putting his hand to his pocket.*)

' *Charl.* (*mortified.*) Had the trouble!

' *Frank.* There, take this little present: (*tendering her a few gold pieces, without looking at her.*)

' *Charl.* (*taking him by the hand, with great vivacity.*) I only see the hand you stretch out to me, and not what it contains: I'll keep that hand; drop my tears on your money, and beg you will take it back.

' *Frank.* (*affectionately.*) Girl, thou art proud.

' *Charl.* I'll be proud of your love. Here that proud girl kneels down by your chair, and prays for one single kind look. My mother could leave me no more than her features; these features will put you in mind of a friend that has long since mouldered into dust; this recollection will melt your heart, and give me, in you, a second father.

' *Frank.* (*looks several times at her, seemingly affected, then turning to Jack.*) Jack, she is very like her mother—Curse it, Jack, help me out.

' *Jack.* (*sobbing.*) I can't, captain.

' *Frank.* Thou criest, I declare: Jack, help me out, I tell thee.

' *Jack.* (*raising Charlotte, and putting her in Frank's arm*)

' *Frank.* (*striving to get loose.*) Awaft; that's what you may call bending all your canvas by night and in a mist.



\* *Charl.* I perceive a tear in your eye, uncle : I wouldn't take all your gold for that.

\* *Frank.* Well, well ; thou hast run me down altogether : go, kneel down on thy mother's grave, and thank her for it. When you were christened, and I afterwards stood by her bed, she took me by the hand—she then just looked as thou doest now—and said to me, dear brother, I lay this child near your heart, when I die, (*he cannot proceed, at last he says quickly*) Four weeks afterwards she was gone, (*a pause, during which his muscles appear in agitation.*) Come, my girl, come to my bosom.

\* *Charl.* (*sinks in his embrace.*)' p. 89.

But the reconciliation is not yet effected between the brothers. The disposition of Frank towards it is increased by overhearing a conversation between Mrs. Grim and the lawyer, which, to the great delight of Jack Buller, ends in his being ordered to turn out the old housekeeper. Dr. Blum now invites both brothers to the garden ; and they forgive each other.

Some florid speeches occur in the course of the play, which Kotzebue must have known to be unnatural, but which probably procured applause from those who would not have discovered real beauties. In perusing this piece, we were often reminded of Sterne, by its sudden effect upon the feelings, and by its making the heart sorrowful even in laughter. We should add that it seems better adapted for representation than any of this author's plays which we have yet seen.

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*The Life of Edmund Burke. Comprehending an impartial Account of his literary and political Efforts, and a Sketch of the Conduct and Character of his most eminent Associates, Coadjutors, and Opponents. By Robert Bisset, LL. D. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cawthorn. 1798.*

IN a life of Edmund Burke impartiality cannot be expected. To those who contemplate the French revolution with abhorrence and alarm, he appears a prophet, whose voice was raised to warn and to preserve ; while those who expect, from the ascendancy of the new principles, the increase of general knowledge and happiness, regard him as a new St. Bernard, urging his countrymen to a new and more ruinous crusade. As Mr. M'Cormick was the accuser, Dr. Bisset is the advocate, of Burke, equally zealous in the cause which he has espoused ; and though there are many who will not think him more successful, all perhaps will agree in pronouncing him more able.

Edmund Burke was born in Dublin on the 1st of January, 1730. The first part of his classical education he received at the school of Mr. Abraham Shackleton, a quaker. At this seminary he was considered as inferior to his brother Richard, though the father and the instructor of both more justly appreciated their talents. At the university of Dublin, Edmund did not distinguish himself. Academical honours indeed are usually attained by secondary talents: genius seeks them not, because it values them not.

The first literary effort of our young politician, says Dr. Bisset, was an exposure of the absurdity of democratic innovations. One Lucas had written daringly against government, and in consequence had become popular. Burke imitated his style, and pushed his principles to absurd and dangerous consequences.

On a vacancy in the chair of logic at Glasgow, he applied for the professorship without success. After this disappointment, he came to London, entered at the Temple, and wrote for 'daily, weekly, and monthly publications.' Extreme application injured his health. Dr. Nugent, the physician whom he consulted, not only relieved his complaints, but became his intimate friend. This gentleman's daughter he afterwards married.

The *Vindication of Natural Society*, in which he exposed the false philosophy of Bolingbroke, was his first acknowledged performance.

'The disciples of Bolingbroke considered his notions as applying to theology only; they did not foresee that the same engines that were employed for the destruction of religion, which they did not regard, might be used for the subversion of government, the annihilation of their privileges, and the forfeiture of their property, which they did regard.'

'The tendency of religious scepticism to produce political confusion was discovered by the penetrating genius of a Burke. He endeavoured to turn sceptics to sound thinking, by shewing that, if false philosophy became general, it would ultimately destroy their rank, consequence, and property.' P. 28.

It is not religious scepticism, or the atheism to which it too frequently leads, that has a tendency to produce revolution. Atheism is so far from being necessarily connected with revolutionary principles, that no system more completely fits its disciples for passive and abject slavery; witness the miserable state of Rome under the Cæsars, when the tenets of Epicurus were almost universally adopted by the patricians. It is not then doubt or disbelief that is dangerous to a state; it is the maintenance of any opinions differing from those which the law has established as most convenient for the subjects. The



charge of disaffection has therefore been uniformly adduced against those who promulgated religious doctrines contrary to the established tenets. The Jews accused Paul as 'a mover of sedition;' catholic persecutors have used the terms *heretic* and *rebel* as synonymous; and, in our own days, the dissenters have been hunted down as disaffected. Where an ecclesiastical establishment exists, those who dissent from it will ever feel themselves oppressed. The increase of non-conformity, on this account, is dangerous to the state.

The Vindication of Natural Society was soon followed by the celebrated Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful. The profits of this work, with a hundred pounds sent to him by his father on account of its merit, relieved Burke from some pecuniary embarrassments; and his company was now sought by men of letters. In 1758 he commenced the Annual Register. His friend William Gerard Hamilton procured him, not long after, a pension of 300*l.* a year, on the Irish establishment. His writings in the Public Advertiser attracted the notice of the marquis of Rockingham, and he was brought into parliament.

'As a most profound admirer of his genius,' (says the biographer) 'I do not rejoice at the commencement of his connection with the marquis of Rockingham. From that time he may be considered as a *party man*. Burke ought not to have stooped to be the object of patronage. Like his friend Johnson, he should have depended entirely on his own extraordinary powers. He would have been able uniformly to act as his own genius prompted him, instead of employing his talents in giving currency to the doctrines of others—to have wielded his own club instead of a party distaff. In this part of their conduct, Johnson and Hume, the only two literary characters of the age who can be placed in the same rank with Burke, acted more worthily of the superiority with which they were blessed by nature. They attached themselves to no grandees: they did not degrade the native dignity of genius, by becoming retainers to the adventitious dignity of rank. Johnson, in his garret, the abode of independence, was superior to Burke in his villa, the fee of a party. The former earned his subsistence by his labour, the latter received his by donative. Johnson was independent,—Burke dependent. Besides, the very extraordinary talents of Burke did not tend to promote party objects more effectually than good abilities, many degrees inferior to his, and mere knowledge of business, would have done. But had he been as superior to others in party skill, as in genius and knowledge, the fertility of his fancy and the irritability of his temper must often have prevented him from directing his skill steadily to the most useful ends. For so much irascibility a situation of contention was ill suited.' p. 69.

When he espoused a party different from that to which Mr. Hamilton was attached, he honourably resigned the pension which that gentleman had procured for him.

In the trade of politics Burke must be considered as having been successful.

'Burke had now gotten a very pleasant villa near Beaconsfield, in Buckinghamshire. Various accounts have been given of his fortune at the time this purchase was made. The most general and best authenticated was, that the marquis of Rockingham advanced ten thousand pounds on a simple bond, never intended to be reclaimed: that Dr. Saunders of Spring Gardens advanced five thousand secured by a mortgage. It is certain that at Dr. Saunders's death, a mortgage on Burke's estate was found by the executor for that sum, and that the principal was considerably increased by arrears of interest. The whole price was twenty-three thousand pounds. It had been said, that Burke, his brother Richard, and Mr. William Burke, were very successful speculators in the funds. Edmund afterwards, as I shall shew, proved that he was totally unconcerned in any such transaction. How the remaining eight thousand pounds were procured, I have not been able to ascertain.'

P. 112.

The manner in which he 'proved himself totally unconcerned in any such transaction' is thus related —

'About this period' [1778] 'Burke was defendant in a chancery suit, in which lord Verney was plaintiff. It was alledged by lord Verney, that Burke, his brother, and cousin, had been engaged with him in a stock-jobbing speculation, by which very great loss had been incurred; that lord Verney was the ostensible man, and had been obliged to make out the engagements; that Edmund Burke being the only one of the rest, who had any property, Verney had applied to him to defray his share of the debt. On refusal, he filed a bill against him in chancery, claiming Burke as his partner. Burke making affidavit that he was not, the matter was, of course, concluded in Burke's favour. A great clamour arose against Burke for clearing himself in this manner: but a positive oath of a man of character is certainly better evidence than vague rumour.'

P. 314.

The biographer, we think, has too lightly passed over this affair. It is not credible that earl Verney would have brought an action against Burke, unless the latter had been concerned in the transaction. Both perhaps conceived their conduct to be justifiable; and both perhaps were in the wrong.

Dr. Bisset does not believe that Burke was the author of Junius's Letters: he thinks they may with more probability be ascribed to his brother Richard.



‘In all this, however,’ (he adds) ‘there is hitherto no certainty. The time may arrive when the mystery will be unfolded. The discovery of this hidden champion of anti-ministerial politics may be, perhaps, in the power of a very eminent politician, still alive, and the first philological philosopher of the age.’ P. 111.

The following extract notices a remarkable prejudice entertained by Burke.

‘The genius, wisdom, and learning of Burke did not prevent him from entertaining some opinions totally unfounded. Through life he had certain prepossessions, to which he was warmly attached, and respecting which, though in most of his conversations he was mild and unassuming, he could brook no contradiction. He most strenuously denied the Irish massacre: he said it was all a fiction. Being at one time intimately acquainted with Hume, he used to battle this point with him with great zeal: when pressed hard by the strong testimony and powerful arguments adduced by Hume, he used to say that the testimony proved nothing; and to quote an absurd story, to which, he affirmed, thousands of Irish most confidently bore witness, “that the ghosts of numbers of those that had been killed, and thrown into the Shannon, often made their appearance on the banks of the river, to the great disturbance of the neighbourhood.” This mode of reasoning, that one believed portion of history was false, because a story obviously false had been believed, was certainly very unworthy of Burke, and very unlikely to convince Hume; although he himself, when it favours his own prejudices, reasons in the same manner. I am assured that Hume alludes to Burke in the following note to the fifth volume of the History of England: “There are three events in our history which may be regarded as touchstones of party men. An English whig, who asserts the reality of the popish plot; an Irish catholic, who denies the massacre in 1641; and a Scotch Jacobite, who maintains the innocence of queen Mary; must be considered as men beyond the reach of argument, and must be left to their own prejudices.”

‘So great is the inequality often to be found in men of the highest genius, that Burke could not bear to have this favourite notion attacked. There were three subjects on which he could not speak without being transported into a rage, as violent as Johnson, if whigs were praised, the Americans defended, or episcopacy censured:—Burke’s were, through life, the Irish massacre; during the latter part of it, the conduct of Hastings, and the French revolution. He never forgave Hume; and I am informed that, even so late as the last Christmas he saw, in conversation with a counsellor of the first talents, he inveighed most bitterly against the historian for having alluded to him in his note.’ P. 195.

This strange prejudice, and much of Burke’s subsequent

conduct, seem to prove that Hamilton's judgment of him was well founded. 'Whatever opinion' (said he) 'Burke, from any motive, supports, so ductile is his imagination, that he soon conceives it to be right.'

The commencement of the American war affords a striking parallel to that of the present ruinous contest.

'In America hostilities were now commenced. It had frequently been asserted in parliament that the colonists were cowards. One gentleman declared that with three thousand men he could over-run America. This opinion was also very generally received out of the house. Hardly was there to be met a half pay officer, who did not, at his village club, declare, that with two or three regiments he himself could subdue America. Burke, who knew the human mind, general history as well as the particular state, sentiments, and dispositions of the Americans, and could infer motive and action from situation and character, entertained a far different opinion; an opinion which the first battle between the British and provincial troops tended to confirm. Although the colonists were defeated at Bunker's hill, they lost fewer men than the British. Besides the valour of men fighting in what they conceived to be the cause of their own liberty, they had acquired great dexterity in the use of arms, and were excellent marksmen. The Americans made a successful inroad into Canada, and penetrated as far as Quebec.

'The British ministry not having foreseen so vigorous a resistance, had not made the preparations which coercive measures were found to require. Indeed it does not appear that they had been at pains, proportionate to the importance of the object, to attain full information on the dispositions and resources of the colonies: therefore, although we should admit the justice and even the expediency of the measures of administration, we cannot give them much credit for the wisdom of their plans and vigour of their efforts at the commencement of the rupture.' P. 250.

The sagacious mind of Fox, 'at the commencement of the war, foresaw the event. Fox perceived, and predicted, that men fighting for their liberty would be ultimately successful. He tried to dissuade his country from war, foreboding discomfiture and distress from such a contest. The admonitions of this great man were disregarded. His country hearkened not to his warning voice. The actual disaster and consequent calamity far exceeded the anticipation of even Fox's foresight.' P. 253.

Throughout the work Dr. Bisset labours to prove that Burke was consistent in his opinions; and, like an able advocate, he adduces whatever tends to favour his cause. It is unnecessary to follow him through the history of the American and present wars. The conduct of Burke, in both, is well known.



It is certainly possible for a *duplicitous* imagination to believe him consistent in so firmly opposing the one, and so rancorously exciting the other.

Our author passes over the pension of his hero with prudent rapidity. Incautiously, however, he asserts that it was presented to him when he was no longer able to assist the ministry. Did Dr. Bisset forget, or did he not choose to remember, that, after the pension had been settled upon Burke, he again sounded his savage war-whoop?

Though we differ widely from the author in our opinion of Mr. Burke's conduct, we agree with him in admiring the genius of the great orator; and, while we dissent from the principles of his work, we are pleased with the temper in which it is written. Of this the following passage affords an honourable proof.

“On the celebrated speech of Sheridan on the Begum charge, he [Burke] bestowed the following very high, but not exaggerated panegyric.

“He has this day surprised the thousands, who hung with rapture on his accents, by such an array of talents, such an exhibition of capacity, such a display of powers, as are unparalleled in the annals of oratory; a display that reflected the highest honour upon himself — lustre upon letters — renown upon parliament — glory upon the country. Of all species of rhetoric, of every kind of eloquence that has been witnessed or recorded, either in ancient or modern times; whatever the acuteness of the bar, the dignity of the senate, the solidity of the judgment-seat, and the sacred morality of the pulpit, have hitherto furnished, nothing has surpassed, nothing has equalled what we have heard this day in Westminster-Hall. No holy fear of religion, no sage, no statesman, no orator, no man of any literary description whatever, has come up, in the one instance, to the pure sentiments of morality, or, in the other, to that variety of knowledge, force of imagination, propriety and vivacity of allusion, beauty and elegance of diction, strength and copiousness of style, pathos and sublimity of conception, to which we have this day listened with ardour and admiration. From poetry, up to eloquence, there is not a species of composition, of which a complete and perfect specimen might not, from that single speech, be culled and collected.”

“After quoting this encomium, Mr. M'Cormick makes the following observations, which require animadversion. “How sweet is praise, when uttered by the lips of eloquence! Yet sweeter still, when it flows from the heart of sincerity! But Mr. Burke's language, on this occasion, was dictated by artifice. The near observers of his sentiments and emotions could perceive that he felt himself surpassed by Mr. Sheridan in all the favourite walks of his own genius; that the canker-worm of envy had gnawed its way into his bosom; and that he strove to conceal its sharp corrosion under the shew of the most zealous and liberal applause.”

There is nothing easier than to assign bad motives, but their existence is to be proved by something more convincing than mere assertion. Is there any evidence that Sheridan was the object of envy to Burke? Mr. McCormick adduces none. P. 430.

Of the writer's style we may observe, that it sometimes exhibits an unpleasing pomp and affectation.

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*A Voyage of Discovery, by Captain Vancouver. (Concluded from p. 31 of this Volume).*

WHEN captain Vancouver had again sailed from the Sandwich Islands to examine the north-western coast of America, the first land which he approached was an island situated in  $55^{\circ} 48'$  lat. and  $205^{\circ} 16'$  long. He calls it, from the companion of Behring, Tschirikoff's Island. He proceeded to the isle of Trinity, and thence sailed up what was called Cook's River, but which appears to be only an inlet from the sea, terminating at no great distance from the spot where our immortal navigator desisted from his search, and seemingly connected at its eastern shore very nearly with Prince William's Sound. In this inlet the inhabitants were found to be courteous, sober, and honest; but they were poor, squalid, and in almost every respect uncomfortable. The Russians claim this part of America; and they probably will not be disturbed in their possession of it. This district offers little to the trader, the naturalist, or the speculative inquirer: the navigation of the inlet itself is rendered dangerous by numerous shoals.

The next opening, which might be supposed to lead to Hudson's Bay or the Atlantic, was Prince William's Sound. Captain Vancouver anchored in a port on its eastern side, named Port Chalmers; and the survey was pursued in boats, without the least prospect of success. On the western side the boats approached the eastern extremity of Cook's inlet, which was styled Turnagain arm. Mr. Whidbey's account of the country is curious.

Although Mr. Whidbey had every reason to presume that his examination had hitherto been directed along the continental shore, yet from the very extraordinary manner in which we had found the coast of North West America divided, he could not help entertaining some doubts, until he arrived at the north-west extremity of this branch, situated in latitude  $60^{\circ} 48'$ , longitude  $211^{\circ} 52'$ . Here they had approached within twelve miles in a direction S. 60 W. of the spot where Mr. Whidbey had ended his examination of Turnagain arm. The intermediate space was the isthmus so frequently



alluded to before, on either side of which the country was composed of what appeared to him to be lofty, barren, impassable mountains, enveloped in perpetual snow; but the isthmus itself was a valley of some breadth, which, though it contained elevated land, was very free from snow, and appeared to be perfectly easy of access; a little to the eastward of this valley, a rapid stream of fresh water rushed down a gully in the lofty mountains, and found its way to the sea through a margin of low land extending from the base of the mountains, and producing pine-trees, cranberries, and a few other shrubs. On the western point of entrance into this brook was a small house, about five feet high, and eight feet square, covered in with bark, not built after the Indian, but evidently constructed after the Russian manner; formed by logs of timber, and made tight by the vacancies being filled up with moss and clay; the bottom was strewed over with clean dried grass, and appeared not only to have been recently inhabited, but to be a place of frequent resort.

‘ This house, and the general appearance of the country, removed every doubt of their situation being then on the eastern side of that pass, by which the Russians maintain a communication between their settlements in these two extensive inlets. Mr. Whidbey, however, for his further satisfaction, was very desirous of finding the road or path by which the intercourse was carried on; and although he was unsuccessful in ascertaining this, yet it did not appear to him that any particular track was necessary, as the valley had a tolerably even surface, was nearly destitute of any vegetable productions, and was equally passable in all directions. Its situation and character corresponded also with the description of it given by the Russians, and Mr. Whidbey’s mensuration agreed nearly with the distance across as stated by them, namely, about sixteen versts. Coincidences so conclusive were considered by him as sufficiently satisfactory, without crossing the isthmus for more fully determining the point in question, which was now placed beyond all doubt; nor could it be necessary for attaining the principal object of our voyage, that a more minute examination should be made of this isthmus, or of the shores of the intervening peninsula between Cook’s inlet and Prince William’s Sound.’ Vol. iii. p. 180.

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‘ At one of the points where the party had occasion to land, a sepulchre was discovered; Mr. Whidbey, in the course of this excursion, had observed similar monuments before, but they were all so old, decayed, and mutilated, that it was not an easy matter to determine exactly for what specific purpose they had been originally intended; but it was now proved that their conjectures had been rightly formed. This tomb being of more recent date, Mr. Whidbey had it examined; a hole was found dug about a foot deep, five feet long, and four feet wide; at the bottom were some thin planks, and across them, nearly in the middle of the grave,

two pieces of wood were placed about a foot asunder, and about nine inches thick, between which were deposited the remains of a dead body, rolled up in a seal skin, and carefully tied with thongs of the same material. These remains consisted of some ashes and calcined bones, which were concluded to be human; and as all the parts of the grave shewed evident signs of the action of fire, it is natural to infer, that consuming their dead by fire is the practice of the inhabitants. The relics thus deposited were covered over with another plank, over which were strewed stones, moss, and some old broken paddles. The direction of the grave was nearly north and south, with a small pole about eight feet long erected at its south end.' Vol. iii. p. 182.

To engage in a minute geographical comparison of the statements of the captains Vancouver and Cook, with regard to the situation and extent of Montague island, is unnecessary. There is undoubtedly a considerable difference, which our present author attributes to an accidental loss of the nautical remarks which were made by his predecessor, between Cape Elizabeth and Kaye's island. This may have been the case; for, like captain Vancouver, we have too great confidence in the accuracy of Dr. Douglas to impute any inattention to him.

The country within view of Port Chalmers, in Prince William's Sound, was apparently verdant and fertile, but was, in reality, a morass of decayed vegetables on a rocky basis. The sea seems to be rapidly gaining ground, at least on the eastern shores; and if it should do so equally on the western, future navigators may sail through Passage Inlet to Cook's River, and suppose themselves to have found the strait which separates the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The inhabitants of these coasts appear to be less numerous than former navigators imagined. From the mutual confidence and good-will between them and the Russians, it is not probable that many have been destroyed in war: it is more likely that the number has been over-rated; or it may happen, that the Americans migrate to different shores in quest of subsistence, so that their apparent numbers are variable. The Russians in these districts are of the lower ranks; and they are not, it is said, in the service of the government, but of different mercantile companies. In refinement, delicacy, or appearance, they scarcely rise in the scale above the native Americans. The object of their settlement is the fur trade, which they seem to monopolise.

Behring's Bay, in all probability, does not exist in the place allotted to it by captain Cook. The bay which Behring seems to have visited, is that called by Mr. Dixon Admiralty Bay; and to this captain Vancouver restored the name of the Russian navigator.

Proceeding to Cross Sound, the captain anchored in a port on its eastern side, which he named Port Althorp: from this



place the examination was continued in boats. He there found that what had been considered as an indentation of the sea on the continent, was a passage to a strait between another groupe of islands, which he called King George's Archipelago. The principal island lies to the east of the supposed sound, and within it is another of some extent, denominated Admiralty Island. In this course our navigators penetrated as far as  $226^{\circ} 45'$  longitude, traced every minute opening on the side which could lead to the supposed passage, and seem, in every place, to have seen the real continent. Christian Sound, it may be observed, was the northernmost point of their former investigation; and this they now again reached from the north. It may therefore be concluded that no north-east passage exists.

The Indians, in some parts of this inland navigation, were kind and friendly; but some tribes appeared perfidious and hostile. They have obtained fire-arms, and understand the use of those implements of destruction; but they do not seem to have any great share of genuine spirit. It is supposed that they burn their dead, and preserve the bones in square boxes on the tops of white pillars.

Lynn Canal, mentioned in the following quotation, is a continuation of the strait which divides King George's Archipelago from Admiralty Island: its course is to the north, and a little to the west.

‘The upper part of this arm, which after the place of my nativity, the town of Lynn in Norfolk, obtained the name of Lynn Canal, approaches nearer to those interior waters of the continent, which are said to be known to the traders and travellers from the opposite side of America, than we had found the waters of the North Pacific penetrate in any former instance. This approximation is towards the south-west side of the Arathapescow lake, as laid down in captain Cook's chart, from which its distance is about three hundred and twenty geographical miles; but from the close connection and continuation of the lofty snowy barrier, so frequently before adverted to, trending south-eastward, and nearly parallel to the direction of the continental shore, little probability can remain of there being any navigable communication, even for canoes, between such waters and the North Pacific ocean, without the interruption of falls, cataracts, and various other impediments.

‘The boats were shortly joined in their way down the canal by a large canoe, in which there were about twenty Indians, with a chief, who assumed the character of king or principal chief over all the people residing up the brook. He introduced himself in a friendly and courteous manner, made Mr. Whidbey a present of a sea otter skin, and cheerfully received a suitable return; but like the Indians who had visited the vessels, he did not care to venture

himself in the power of our party, and nothing could induce him to get into the yawl, but Mr. Whidbey himself going as a hostage into his canoe, and there remaining so long as he might think proper to stay in the boat. With this request Mr. Whidbey did not think proper to comply, yet they accompanied our party down the canal, who in the evening rested for the night on the eastern shore, about five miles to the southward of Point Seduction; on their landing, the chief shewed much civil attention, and, as he had before done on all occasions, used his utmost endeavours to impress our gentlemen with a good opinion of his sincerity.

‘ This chief Mr. Whidbey represented as a tall, thin, elderly man. He was dressed in a much more superb style than any chief we had hitherto seen on this coast, and he supported a degree of state consequence, and personal dignity, unusual to be found amongst the chiefs of North-West America. His external robe was a very fine large garment, that reached from his neck down to his heels, made of wool from the mountain sheep, neatly variegated with several colours, and edged, and otherwise decorated with little tufts, or frogs of woollen yarn, dyed of various colours. His head-dress was made of wood, much resembling in its shape a crown, adorned with bright copper and brass plates, from whence hung a number of tails or streamers, composed of wool and fur wrought together, dyed of various colours, and each terminating by a whole ermine skin. The whole exhibited a magnificent appearance, and indicated a taste for dress and ornament, that we had not supposed the natives of these regions to possess.’ Vol. iii. p. 249.

Suspicion was, as it frequently is, the result of guilty intentions in this chief; and Mr. Whidbey’s forbearance and steadiness were exemplary.—In some of these islands there were the first appearances of cultivation, which our author had observed in his progress from the north. The plant cultivated seemed to be tobacco.

To the north-west of Cape Ommaney, the north-western termination of Christian’s Sound, captain Vancouver made his last stand, and ascertained with great precision what we have already explained. This dreary spot afforded few articles of utility or luxury.

‘ Mr. Whidbey observes, that in no one instance during his researches, either in the several branches of Prince William’s Sound, in those extending from Cross Sound, or, in the course of his present excursion, did he find any immense bodies of ice on the islands; all those which he had seen on shore were in the gullies or vallies of the connected chain of lofty mountains so frequently mentioned, and which chiefly constituted the continental shore from Cook’s inlet to this station; though in different places these moun-



tains are at different distances from the sea side. He likewise observes that all the islands, or groups of islands, were land of a moderate height, when compared with the stupendous mountains that compose the continental boundary, and were still seen to continue in a south-eastern direction from this shallow passage; whilst the land to the westward of the passage assumed a more moderate height, was free from snow, and produced a forest of lofty pine trees. These observations more particularly applying to the former, than to the subsequent, part of this survey, I have, for that reason, thought proper to introduce them in this place, and shall now resume the subject of Mr. Whidbey's excursion.

The day being fair and pleasant, Mr. Whidbey wished to embrace this opportunity of drying their wet clothes, putting their arms in order, and giving a thorough cleaning to the boats, which, from the continual bad weather, had now become an object of real necessity. For this purpose the party landed on a commodious beach; but before they had finished their business a large canoe arrived, containing some women and children, and sixteen stout Indian men, well appointed with the arms of the country, but without any fire-arms. They behaved in a very friendly manner on the beach for a little time, but their conduct afterwards put on a very suspicious appearance; the children withdrew into the woods, and the rest fixed their daggers round their wrists, and exhibited other indications, not of the most friendly nature. To avoid the chance of any thing unpleasant taking place, Mr. Whidbey considered it most humane and prudent to depart, and he continued his route down the branch along its south-west shore, passing some islets that lie near it. The Indians did the same, but kept on the opposite shore, and in the course of a little time the canoe disappeared. In the hope of being quit of these people, the party stopped to dine near the high bluff observed from point Vandeput, but before they had finished their repast the same Indians, who must have turned back unperceived, for the purpose of crossing over to follow the boats, were seen coming round the point of the cove in which was the party, and not more than a quarter of a mile from their dinner station; as the canoe approached a musket was fired over it, in order to deter the Indians from advancing; but this, as on former occasions, seemed to encourage them, and they appeared to come forward with more eagerness; but on a second shot being fired at the canoe they instantly retreated with all possible speed, and were soon again behind the point: yet as Mr. Whidbey suspected they might be inclined to attempt by surprize, that which they dared not venture to do openly, he hastened the meal of his party, and put off from the shore; this was scarcely effected, when his conjectures were proved to have been well founded, by the appearance of a number of armed people issuing from the woods, exactly at the spot where our party had dined; and nearly at the same

instant of time the canoe was again seen paddling round the point of the cove.

‘ This conduct, on the part of the Indians, greatly attracted the observation of the party, and whilst they were watching the motions of these people, their attention was suddenly and most agreeably called to an object of more pleasing concern ; that of the boats under Mr. Johnstone’s direction coming within sight, about two miles distant.

‘ The stratagem thus practised by these Indians is alone sufficient to shew, that our apprehensions on board, for the safety of our absent friends, had not been without reason ; and it is one, amongst many other circumstances, which taught me to believe, that we were but just in time for the accomplishment of the arduous and hazardous service in which we had been so long engaged ; as the very unjustifiable conduct of the traders on this coast has encouraged the inhabitants to attempt such acts of hostility, that the means we possessed to repel their attacks, would, in all probability, have been insufficient for our protection, had it been our lot to have tried the experiment one year later.’ Vol. iii. p. 282.

Some part of the country, to the east and the south of the district then investigated, appeared to be fertile, and capable of producing many useful vegetables. At the head of the inlets, sea otters seemed to abound, chiefly perhaps on account of the salmon, their favourite food.

‘ Mr. Whidbey in his observations on Admiralty Island, remarks, that notwithstanding this island seemed to be composed of a rocky substance, covered with little soil, and that chiefly consisting of vegetables in an imperfect state of dissolution, yet . . . . . it produced timber, which he considered as superior to any he had before noticed on this side of America. He also states, that in his two last excursions several places were seen, where the ocean was evidently incroaching very rapidly on the land, and that the low borders extending from the base of the mountains to the sea side, had, at no very remote period of time, produced tall and stately timber ; as many of their dead trunks were found standing erect, and still rooted fast in the ground, in different stages of decay ; those being the most perfect that had been the least subject to the influence of the salt water, by which they were surrounded on every flood tide : such had been the incroachment of the sea on these shores, that the shorter stumps, in some instances at low water mark, were even with, or below the surface of the sea.

‘ This same appearance has been noticed before in Port Chalmers, and on this occasion Mr. Whidbey quotes other instances of similar incroachments not only in Prince William’s Sound, but also in Cook’s inlet ; where he observed similar effects on the shores,



and is of opinion from these evidences, that the shallow banks occupying so large a part of Gray's harbour, have recently been produced by the operation of one and the same cause : and it is not less reasonable to conclude, that the waters of the North Pacific have, possibly for ages, had a general tendency to produce the same effect on all the coast comprehended within the limits before mentioned.' P. 293.

We cannot conclude this part of our account without the warmest commendation of the zeal, diligence, and judgment, with which the search was conducted. Scepticism now can furnish no one loop on which a doubt can hang ; and the conclusion drawn by us from the various circumstances which had before occurred, is now confirmed by decisive evidence.

Captain Vancouver, returning to Nootka, found the Spanish commandant kind and friendly. While his men were refitting the ships, he visited the most powerful of the neighbouring chiefs. He found the country dreary, mountainous, and infertile, in a high degree. The power of Maquinna, the principal chief, seemed not considerable ; but the whole was displayed ; every exertion was made to render this visit pleasing to his guests, and his utmost eloquence was employed, to convince his subjects and neighbours of the high honour conferred on him.

' Having taken our seats, about thirty men began each to beat with a stick on a hollow board, in order to assemble the inhabitants of the village to that spot. This summons being readily obeyed, Maquinna informed the assembled crowd with great earnestness, and in a speech of some length, that our visit was to be considered as a great honour done to him, and that it had taken place in consequence of the civil and orderly behaviour of all the inhabitants of the Sound under his authority towards the English and the Spaniards. This, he observed, was not the case with Wicananish, or any other chief whose people committed acts of violence and depredation on the vessels and their crews that visited their country ; but that such behaviour was not practised at Nookta, and that for this reason they had been more frequently visited ; by which means their wealth in copper, cloth, and various other articles of great value to them, had been increased far exceeding that of any of their neighbours. He particularly mentioned some tribes, but by appellations we were not acquainted with, over whom he seemed to consider our visit to him as a great triumph ; and from his manner of speaking, there evidently appeared to exist no small degree of jealousy between them. He then proceeded to enumerate the various good qualities that marked the character of the Spaniards and the English ; that both were strongly attached to himself and his people, and that he hoped that we should be much pleased by being entertained according to their manner of receiving visitors,

‘ The performers I believe were all in readiness without, and anxious to begin their part; for the instant Maquinna had ceased speaking, the hollow board music recommenced, and a man entered the house most fantastically dressed in a war garment, which reached to the calves of his legs, but not below them; this was variously ornamented, as was also his face with black and red paint, so that his features appeared to be most extravagantly distorted, or, more properly speaking, they were scarcely distinguishable: his hair was powdered, or rather intirely covered with the most delicate white down of young sea fowl, and in his hand he bore a musket with a fixed bayonet, making altogether a most savage, though at the same time a whimsical figure; this man was followed by about twenty more, decorated with considerable variety after the same fashion, but differently armed; some like himself with muskets, others with pistols, swords, daggers, spears, bows, arrows, fish-gigs, and hatchets, seemingly with intent to display their wealth and power, by an exhibition of the several implements they possessed, as well for the use of war, as for obtaining the different necessities of life.

‘ This indescribable group of figures was drawn up before us; and notwithstanding we were perfectly satisfied of the harmless and peaceable intentions of these people, yet I believe there was not one of our party intirely free from those sensations which will naturally arise from the sight of such unusual objects; whose savage and barbarous appearance was not a little augmented by their actions and vociferous behaviour, accompanied by an exhibition, that consisted principally of jumping in a very peculiar manner. In this effort the legs did not seem to partake much of the exertion, although they sometimes raised themselves to a considerable height; and we understood that those were considered to be the best performers, who kept their feet constantly parallel to each other, or in one certain position, with the least possible inclination of the knees. After these had finished their part, Maquinna performed a mask dance by himself, in which, with great address, he frequently and almost imperceptibly changed his mask; this seemed to be a very favourite amusement of his, as he appeared to be in high spirits, and to take great delight in the performance. The masks he had made choice of certainly did credit to his imagination in point of whimsical effect; his dress was different from that worn by any of the other performers, consisting of a cloak and a kind of short apron, covered with hollow shells, and small pieces of copper so placed as to strike against each other, and to produce a jingling noise; which, being accompanied by the music before described as a substitute for a drum, and some vocal exertions, produced a savage discordant noise as offensive to the ear, as the former exhibition had been to the eye. But as the object of our visit was a compliment to Maquinna, a previous determination to be pleased insured our plaudits, which were bountifully bestowed, and re-



ceived with great pleasure and satisfaction by the surrounding spectators.' P. 307.

As Maquinna may be deemed an English subject, we have been the more copious in our extract. We must now hasten with the captain to Monterey, where the friendly benevolence and hospitality, which the English experienced in their first visit, were renewed. The dispute respecting Nootka was then, from the particular instructions of the Spanish court, satisfactorily adjusted.

Some remarkable meteorological appearances in this part of the voyage deserve our notice.

' In the evening, about sun-set, a very singular appearance was observed over the interior mountains, immediately behind the high land of this lofty projecting promontory. An immense body of very dense clouds enveloped the summits of those mountains, rising in a confused agitated state like volumes of steam from a boiling cauldron of great magnitude; these expanded to the northward, and obscured all that part of the horizon, whilst to the southward it was perfectly clear and unclouded. From our own experience, as well as from the information we had derived from the Spaniards, we had long been led to consider Cape Mendocino as situated on the divisionary line between the moderate and boisterous climates of this coast. For this reason, however unscientific it may appear, we could not avoid entertaining idea, that from the immense accumulation of exhalations, which the stupendous mountains in this immediate neighbourhood arrest, arose those violent south-east storms, with which, further to the northward, we so frequently contended, and by which the coast of New Albion, to the southward of this station, is certainly but seldom, and never in so violent a degree affected. This extraordinary appearance inclined us to believe that some turbulent weather was not far remote, but from what quarter we could not guess, as the steady favourable north-west gale, and the appearance of clear and settled weather, in the direction we were steering, did not give us reason to apprehend any inconvenience from the wind shifting to the south-eastward; and its blowing from the opposite point had always been considered as the harbinger of moderate and pleasant weather. This general rule was on Tuesday morning partly confirmed, and partly contradicted, as the vapours we had observed collecting on the preceding evening, were now found to have been destined to discharge their fury from a quarter we had least expected. During the night we had made such progress along the coast, that by four in the morning it became necessary to haul to the wind, in order that we might not overshoot our intended port before day-light. At this time the wind at N. N. W. attended with a most tremendous sea from the same quarter, had increased to such a degree of violence, as allowed us to haul off the shore under our foresail and

storm stayfails only ; but the foresail, though a very good one, not being able to resist the violence of the storm, was about sun rise blown nearly to pieces ; this was immediately replaced with the best we had, the topgallant-masts were struck, and the ship made as snug as possible ; but unable to scud with safety before the storm, we lay to, with the ship's head to the westward, under the storm stayfails, it being impossible to show more canvas, and of course too hazardous to steer for that part of the coast I wished to make, or to attempt running under our bare poles into a port, of which we had so little knowledge as that of the bay of Sir Francis Drake ; to keep the sea was therefore our only prudent alternative.' P. 322.

This storm appeared to be local only ; but it was less connected with Cape Mendocino than our author at first imagined. The whole difficulty may be explained by supposing two currents of air, in opposite directions, at different heights ; a circumstance which is not very uncommon, and which we once were able to ascertain by the eye. The appearance of the accumulated clouds on a high hill did not then greatly differ from the present description.

In the neighbourhood of Monterey a mountain was seen which resembled a noble building fallen to decay. The columns were apparently of considerable magnitude, and of an elegant form : the colour of the stone was a yellowish white. From the colour, and the depth of the angles between the columns, we can hardly suppose the mountain to be basaltic ; nor do we find volcanic appearances common in these regions. The adjacent country is beautiful and fertile.

In the prosecution of the voyage, the English approached the Maria Islands, which do not offer any thing useful to the navigator, or important to the philosophical inquirer. Cocos island is more interesting to both. The latitude of this island was found to be  $5^{\circ} 35'$ , and its longitude  $273^{\circ} 5'$ . Its appearance is not inviting ; its mountains are high and precipitous, and their sides barren ; but it affords water in abundance, of an excellent quality, and cocoa nuts in profusion. Various navigators have enriched the lower grounds with different feeds, and the woods with swine and other animals. To these captain Vancouver made some additions ; and the island may in time afford a comfortable supply of most kinds to distressed seamen. Sea-fowl abound in the rocks ; and their eggs frequently occur in their nests among the coarse grass. A great variety of fish frequent the shores. Among these is the shark, which, our author observes, does not always turn on its back in taking its prey. When a shark was hooked, the others sometimes tore it in pieces from the hook, and devoured it. There were three species ; the tiger shark, beautifully



streaked down its sides, the brown and the blue sharks. The two first were voraciously hostile to each other; but they did not devour the last species.

Captain Vancouver seems to have fallen in with the Gallipagos Islands, situated within  $1^{\circ}$  south of the equator, in the longitude of  $267^{\circ} 53'$ . They are broken and volcanic, but afford anchorage and refreshments. These we shall more particularly notice in our examination of captain Colnett's voyage.

Our navigators, after some misfortunes which could not be repaired at Juan Fernandez, their intended resting-place, proceeded to Valparaiso, on the coast of Chili. In this course the scurvy appeared, and made a rapid progress, notwithstanding every precaution which modern experience and refinement could suggest. It at last appeared, that the cook had indulged the men with the skimmings of the kettle in which the salt beef had been boiled, to render their pease more palatable. This circumstance seems to have been the cause of the disease; but it was cured by the refreshments procured in Chili.

At Valparaiso the strangers were received with the most hospitable kindness; and, while the ship and rigging were undergoing necessary repairs, our author and his officers accepted the invitation of the governor-general to St. Jago, the capital of Chili. The country through which they passed was barren in a great degree: the inhabitants wanted many of the luxuries, and some of the necessaries, of life; but silver seemed to abound among them.

The description of the ladies of St. Jago, and the account of that town, we will quote.

'The generality of the ladies in St. Jago are not wanting in personal charms, and most of those we had the pleasure of meeting this evening might rather be considered handsome than otherwise; they are, in general, brunettes, with expressive black eyes, and regular features; but a want of that neatness, which is so much valued amongst Englishmen, and so much the pride of my fair countrywomen, was conspicuous in many particulars, especially in the total neglect of their teeth, which are suffered to become intolerably dirty. This inattention was not only in a very high degree offensive, but it appeared to us incompatible with the pains that seemed to have been taken in the decoration of their persons; for, at this assembly, they were all superbly dressed, agreeably to the fashion of the country. The most singular part of their dress was a sort of bell-hooped petticoat, that reached from the waist to just below the knees, though some of them did not wear them quite so low; immediately beneath this external part of their dress appeared the under linen garment, the bottom of

which, as well as the tassels of their garters, was fringed with gold lace.

‘ The general deportment of the ladies was lively and unre-served ; and they very obligingly lost no opportunity of relieving us from every little embarrassment, to which the disadvantages we laboured under, in not understanding their language, frequently exposed us ; and I verily believe that there were few occasions, during the whole of our voyage, in which our want of knowledge of the Spanish language was more sincerely regretted ; as it deprived us of the pleasure of enjoying the lively sallies of wit which we had reason to believe occurred very often in the female circles, by the laughter and applause that their conversation so frequently occasioned. This was certainly an evidence of their natural ingenuity, though it did not amount to a proof of their minds having been duly cultivated ; and it is not without concern that I state, from the testimony of their own countrymen, that the education of the female part of the society in St. Jago is so scandalously neglected, as to confine the knowledge of reading and writing to a few of the ladies only. Some of them had the goodness to give us their names in writing, that we might the more easily discover and learn the true pronounciation of them ; these were always written in large letters ; but I do not mean from this circumstance, or from our having received but few of their names, to infer, that the education of the sex is as much confined as was represented to us ; yet the circumstance of their being totally unacquainted with any other language than the dialect of the Spanish spoken at St. Jago, evinced that their education was of a homely nature.’ P. 433.

‘ The city of St. Jago, including the detached houses or suburbs, I should suppose, cannot be less than three or four miles in circumference ; but this is only by estimation, as I did not converse with any one who could, or did, answer me this question ; but as the streets run at right angles to each other, and some of them are little short of a mile in length, this computation cannot be very erroneous. The city is well supplied with water from the river Mapocho, which has its source in the mountains, at some distance from the capital, and is made to branch off in such a manner, on its approaching the town, as to pass through the principal streets. This, in a hot climate, cannot but be supposed a very great luxury, and as conducing extremely to the health of the inhabitants ; but the same want of cleanliness that pervades the insides of the houses, here manifested itself in the open air, and instead of this stream becoming the means by which the streets might have been kept constantly sweet, it is rendered a most insufferable nuisance, by the prodigious quantity of filth which is emptied into it from the houses. As no care was taken that a sufficiency of water should be brought down to carry the soil and



naftiness away, nor to remove it in places where it formed obstructions to the current, and produced the most offensive exhalations; and as the streets, which are narrow, are partially paved with small stones in the middle, and with only a few flag-stones for foot passengers on the sides, our walking about the town was, from these circumstances, rendered very unpleasant.' p. 436.

Some miscellaneous remarks respecting St. Jago are new, but not generally interesting; and we have little to add from the subsequent part of the voyage. Our author doubled Cape Horn, searched in vain for l'Isle Grande (which we noticed in our review of the voyage of la Pérouse), and arrived safely at St. Helena. The French being then at war with Great Britain, he took advantage of the convoy of the Sceptre, and, with a large fleet of East-Indiamen, reached the mouth of the Shannon, whence he hastened to the Thames.

Thus ended a voyage that had continued nearly six years, in which a very great extent of coast had been surveyed with persevering minuteness, and in which various geographical facts had been completely ascertained. One error, the great cause of the voyage, has been effectually destroyed; and no hope can now be entertained of the existence of a north-west passage in such latitudes as can render it at any time practicable.

While we contemplate with pleasure, in the fruits of the voyage, the increase of our geographical knowledge, we rejoice that it was attended with so little loss. Every hostile contention with the Americans was avoided with studious care. One man only died from disease—a flux communicated to the crew at the Cape by a Batavian ship. Three were drowned; one was poisoned by eating muscles; and one suddenly disappeared. A loss so trifling, when the number of persons employed, the length of the voyage, and the hazardous nature of the various services, are considered, is almost incredible. But, we fear, we must add to the losses that of captain Vancouver himself. His health, apparently delicate, seems to have been broken by the fatigues and anxieties of the voyage; and he did not long survive his return. In this narrative he has raised a lasting monument to the excellence of his head and heart; his judgment and his benevolence are equally striking. Of the merits of his work we need not speak. We have followed it with due attention; and having commended it in our progress, we shall merely observe at present, that it is equally instructive and interesting.

*Lectures on the Nature and End of the Sacred Office, and on the Dignity, Duty, Qualifications, and Character of the Sacred Order. By John Smith, D. D. one of the Ministers of Campbellton. [Campbell-town]. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Wright. 1798.*

THE many exhortations which have in all ages been addressed to the clergy on the nature of their office, seem to preclude much novelty on such a subject; yet, as the times may gradually introduce different customs repugnant to the sacred character, there will frequently be topics of this kind on which a pious teacher may interest his hearers or his readers. Even the same points, varied only in their form, may attract those who would have spurned at the dryness of the last century, or at the rigid and fanatical notions of the early fathers; and we may add, that a work of this kind cannot be superfluous in times like the present, when it is more necessary than ever to add line upon line, and precept upon precept.

These lectures embrace every part of the clerical character. The style is not at all times correct; but the sentiments are just; and the writer's great object is to excite true ideas of the dignity of his profession, and a just abhorrence of those vices by which it may be degraded. To produce these effects, he condescends to adopt even the legendary tales of ancient days: but, for the sake of the moral, we will not make very strong objections to the vehicle in which it is conveyed. An instance of this kind may be seen in the vision of a saint entering upon his holy office.

\* Coivin, now with God and his angels, had a vision to this purpose, on the day of his consecration to the ministry. Aweful thoughts filled his soul. A heavenly light shone in his cell. He turned his eye to the heavens, and, lo, they were illumined; he looked to the earth, and, lo, it was on fire. The judgment-throne was set, and the inhabitants of heaven and earth assembled. Michaël stood forth before the judge, and held in his hand that mighty balance, in which souls and their actions are weighed. When ordinary mortals were put in the scales, the standard by which they were tried was less and lighter; nor did they seem to be too scrupulously weighed, if the beam stood only near a poise. Nay, the breath of mercy made it sometimes incline in their favour, when all the pleas that made for them could not decidedly cast it. But when ministers came to be weighed, the standard was ten times augmented, for those of whom least was required; and, in general, that by which they were tried was the weight of the angel Ithiel, prince of the seventh or lowest order of the hierarchy of heaven. For God had ordained, that in the progressive scale there should be no blank, and that the highest order of men should reach the lowest order of superior beings.—Coivin reflected



on the dread office to which he was set apart; he perceived the awful sanctity and care which it required. His heart swelled; the tears burst from his eyes; he wiped them with his hand, and the vision vanished. The impression, however, remained, and Coivin lived on earth, innocent and active, as an angel of heaven.' P. 28.

We were pleased with a remark on public worship, which is particularly applicable to the church of Scotland and to many congregations of English dissenters. After recommending the language of scripture, the author adds—

'Some, perhaps, may object, that, as most people already know the scriptures, neither of these methods has the novelty or variety of a sermon, and will, therefore, be not so pleasing; although I hope they will allow them to be at least equally useful. I might have thought as they do, if I had not made the trial. But experience has corrected my judgment; for I find, by this course, that my people are better pleased, as well as more edified. It is true, almost all have the scriptures in their hands; but it is astonishing how little the greatest part of them know of their contents. It is also almost incredible how little an ordinary congregation is benefited by a sermon, and how poor an account the most attentive can sometimes give of it, after they have heard it. One may perhaps preach an hour (in the manner that some do), and hardly one of a thousand be the wiser or the better. But not so if he read but a few minutes in the scriptures. Besides, we ought to use the scriptures as we do our prayers, not so much with a view to inform our heads, as to impress our hearts, and to advance in piety; not to learn more, but to improve what we know already.

'On these accounts, I must say, that to read the scriptures, and to worship more, and preach less, in our religious assemblies, would certainly tend more to cultivate the religious affections of the soul, as few will find themselves more edified by a sermon, than by a select portion of scripture. To this we may add, that the sermons of the present age are generally more calculated to please and entertain the ear, than to work compunction in the soul, and change the heart. Hence the hearers almost always go away forming some opinion of the talents of the preacher, or the merits of the sermon, rather than silently meditating on the subject, and applying it to their own situation. Accordingly, we go to church, as we say, "to hear sermon," and not to speak to God, or to hear God speak to us, which ought to be the principal ends of our attending the courts of the house of God.' P. 178.

The practice of reading sermons he reprobates; and, indeed, when we see that the bar and the house of commons reject such a mode of delivering a discourse, we are astonished that it should have so many advocates in the church. He pro-

perly observes, that Demosthenes or Cicero, and even Paul of our Saviour, could not have produced such effects as are attributed to their orations or discourses, if their auditors had seen a precomposed paper before their eyes.

‘ There is indeed a way of reading with a propriety and ease, which may in some degree resemble speaking. But the resemblance at best is very faint and distant. Our very tone of voice, when we speak, is different from what it is when we read. The first is the natural sound of our organs of speech; the last was acquired in learning to read, and still favours of that coldness and indifference with which we then expressed what we did not understand. When we speak, our words seem to be the immediate dictates of the heart, and will more easily find their way to the hearts of others. They will also be uttered with more spirit and freedom, than if our eyes were fixed on a paper, which would further deprive our words of those significant looks with which they might be accompanied; the powerful language of the eyes, so full of expression, force, and persuasion. Reading, too, hinders us from observing the countenances of our hearers, which would be no less animating to us than ours to them. It hinders us from observing, whether they attend to us, whether they understand us, or whether they are moved; and, consequently, from accommodating ourselves always to their circumstances. In short, it is altogether incompatible with true oratory and action, and so much alters the nature of a sermon from what it would be, if repeated, that it can never have the same effect upon an audience.’ P. 219.

Though these extracts will enable our readers to form an idea of the author's manner, we should not do justice to his pious zeal if we did not observe, that, throughout his performance, there reigns a spirit of devotion tempered with knowledge, that the subjects of each lecture are well selected and well treated, and that the young clergyman into whose hands the work may fall will reap no small advantage, if he should make it the object of his frequent attention.

*Rising Castle, with other Poems.* By George Goodwin. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Robinsons. 1798.

THESE poems, it is said, were written at and under the age of nineteen years. We would dissuade young authors from these premature publications. A poet of nineteen, unless, indeed, he should possess the *almost* miraculous powers of Chatterton, should no more venture to publish his verses, than a painter to exhibit his puerile sketches. One advantage, however, accrues from this fault. The poems attract the attention of more impartial critics than would probably be found among



the author's acquaintance; and the young writer is taught what to avoid. The censure directed to another interests him not; but he feels and remembers it when applied to himself.

Rising Castle is, from its length, the most important piece in this little volume. It opens with a trite invocation to Fancy, and a trite address to Time. The ruined state of the castle is thus described.

' No spires burnish'd by the sun's last beam,  
Attract far-off, the wandering pilgrim's sight;  
Nor thro' the windows doth the taper's gleam,  
Cheer the lorn traveller with its twinkling light.  
No clock deep-sounding swells the buoyant gale,  
Or at dim evening, or at early morn;  
Not now its murmurs floating thro' the vale,  
Rouse the poor vassal at the misty dawn.  
Fall'n! are the spires that did erst appear,  
Above the summits of yon waving trees;  
Fallen! the turrets, which for many a year,  
Woo'd the soft kisses of the mollient breeze.

' Now fades the splendour of the god of day,  
As swift he journies to the western main;  
And the mild lustre of each parting ray,  
With purple tinges the pellucid plain.  
Now o'er yon marsh, the mists of evening fly,  
And the green raiment of the meadows hide;  
Scarce can the traveller, far-off descry,  
The cattle ranging o'er the green-hills wide.  
Pale streaks of gold, adorn the varied sky,  
And faint, and fainter, grows the sun's last beam;  
The woods, the fields assume a sombre dye,  
And the mist rises from the mazy stream.

' I love to see, the grey-smoke curling o'er,  
The shadowing valley, or the village green,  
The wheel revolving at the cottage door,  
Where all is happiness, and peace serene.  
I love to wander at the close of day,  
The harmless pleasures of the cot to mark,  
To hear sad Philomel's desponding lay,  
Or, the wild quavers of the soaring lark.  
Such scenes of nature, my young bosom cheer,  
More than the music of Italian throats;  
Who with such numbers can delight mine ear,  
Say,—who can warble more melodious notes?" P. 13.

In this passage we find *spires* twice used as a dissyllable; and, in various pages, instances occur where this Procrustes poet has thus unmercifully stretched out his syllables.

The tale of fir Andred and Gunilda, in this poem, is flat and uninteresting. A young author should not venture to cope with Ovid and Musæus.

In the Monodrama of Hero, the author has not sufficiently attended to his story. The priestesses of Venus, remembering the endearments of mutual love, speaks of its *calm enjoyments*, its *purest transports*. This is not warranted by Musæus.

οφειλε δε δυσμορος 'Ηρω,  
Χειματος ισταμενοιο, μενειν απανευθε Λεανδρε,  
Μηκετ' αναπτομενη μινυωριον αστερα λεκτρων.  
Αλλα ποθος και μοιρα βησατο.

Ah ! had but Hero then forborne to urge  
Her hapless husband o'er the boist'rous surge,  
Forborne to kindle the inviting light,  
To gain the raptures of one short-liv'd night !  
But eager passion in her bosom rose,  
Spurning restraint ; and fate decreed her woes.

BEDFORD'S Translation of MUSÆUS.

Throughout the monodrama, it is evident that our young writer had that of Sappho in his recollection, without sufficiently discriminating between the situations and feelings of the two characters. The death of Hero is certainly a happy subject for this species of poem ; but it should be differently treated. She should be looking for Leander, and agitated by the hope that the tempest might have deterred him from trusting himself to the sea. The sight of his corpse should drive her to suicide. Near the beginning of this soliloquy there is a passage which we must not pass over without commendation.

' The brave Leander floats a livid corpse,  
Beneath this tower ; while o'er his manly face  
The dark wave washes, and with plaintive moan  
Plays 'mid his yellow ringlets.' P. 46.

The *plaintive moan* is puerile ; but the image of the hair floating on the waters shows that Mr. Goodwin possesses the imagination of a painter or a poet.

The following sketch, particularly the first part, conveys a very favourable idea of the writer's talents.

' Far as the eye can trace, a sombre hue,  
That seems to mingle with the distant clouds,  
Darkens the surface of the placid deep,  
Full many a league ;—the seamen know it well ;  
And with fantastic whistling from the deck,  
Invite the coming breeze. It speeds along,



And near, and nearer now, on fluttering wings,  
Hastes o'er the intervening space.—Anon,  
It wantons 'mid the shrouds, and wildly sings  
Most grateful music to the seaman's ear,  
Shakes the slack cordage, and with friendly breath,  
Expands the bellying sails—

‘ Not now the sun,  
Pours his bright glory o'er the wide expanse,  
Nor glistens on the wave.—Not now the birds  
Skim the green sea, or dive amidst the surge,  
But hasten to the shore; for swiftly fall  
O'er the rough surface of the moaning deep,  
Eve's lingering shadows, and whilst falling, veil  
The ambient views.—

‘ It is not pleasant now,  
To feel the light gale's quivering pennons brush  
O'er the cool cheek, or wave the dew-bath'd hair;  
For from the sea, the briny damps arise,  
And on the æther floating, fling around  
Such chilling coolness as doth shake the frame,  
And make the soul most pensive.

‘ Now the mists  
Hide the far shore, and dim the prospect round,  
Nor can the eye well trace the distant bark,  
With sails dark swelling, nor the high church spire,  
Tall cliffs steep-towering, nor the village smoke  
In columns winding o'er the upland lawn.  
For deep, and deeper grow the falling shades,  
The clouds assume a blacker dye, and soon  
Will night and silence reign o'er all around.’ P. 115.

In the ballad of the Stranger there is little to commend. Mr. Goodwin's poems in blank verse are indeed uniformly his best. He seems to have read the poems of a living writer with great attention, and to have copied his manner sometimes too closely. In attempting to be *simple*, there is danger of becoming *insipid* and *inane*. The Muses should not be tricked out in meretricious finery, neither should they be in the coarse dress of housemaids.

Let not Mr. Goodwin imagine that we are criticising him with severity and harshness, or that it is our wish to discourage him from his poetical studies. Had his volume been altogether worthless, had it contained no promise of better things, a few lines might have characterised it. On the contrary, we have derived pleasure from these poems, imperfect as they are; and it is because we hope for more, that we have dwelt with some minuteness upon the faults of these. In the mean time, we

counsel him to extend his poetical reading, as the peculiarities of any author's style are insensibly acquired by frequent perusal; and we advise him to correct the feebleness of verification into which his present model may perhaps lead him, by the study of Akenfide, and, above all, of Shakspeare and Milton. If he be patient of correction, we may *almost* promise him that he will rise to eminence.

The monodramas resemble each other too much in their conclusion.

‘ I must away.—

For o'er yon mountains, soon the light-wing'd morn  
Will peep irradiant, and the poor fisher,  
Along the Hellespont's wide beach will spread  
His chequer'd nets.—Then rise! my soul arise!  
And wing thy speedy flight thro' airy realms,  
To where Leander dwells.—Spirit below'd!  
I come!—I fly!—clasp—clasp—thy Hero!—’ P. 50.

‘ But I must go—

For soon the sun-beams o'er yon towering hills,  
Will sparkle cheerily.—The hunter then,  
As o'er this plain he journies to the chase,  
Will sorrow at the sight, and mark with tears,  
Those warriors sleeping who so lately hurl'd,  
Their javelins at the wolf.—

‘ Come! falchion come!

Taste thy old master's blood, in many a side  
Of chieftain thou hast plung'd, and now perform  
Thy duty.—Hark! the spirits of the slain,  
Borne on the clouds ætherial, invoke  
My lingering soul.—Ye spirits of the blest,  
Bear me to happiness.—I come!—I fly!—’ P. 57.

There is also too great a similarity between part of the poem of Rising Castle, and the commencement of the fourth sketch.

In one of the poems, the name of a village called *Snettisham* is introduced. We hope never to hear this unpleasing sound again in verse. If our author will look into the funeral odes of Dr. Watts (and they abound with beauties) he will see the ridiculous effect produced by the use of ill-sounding proper names. Would not Romeo and Juliet excite laughter, if the hero and heroine should address each other as Timothy and Tabitha?



*Biographia Navalis ; or impartial Memoirs of the Lives and Characters of Officers of the Navy of Great Britain, from the Year 1660 to the present Time ; drawn from the most authentic Sources, and disposed in a Chronological Arrangement. By John Charnock, Esq. 8vo. Vol. V. 7s. 6d. in Boards. Faulder. 1797.*

A NAVAL history is particularly interesting at the present period, when the unparalleled exploits of the British commanders have excited the extraordinary attention of Europe, and when the independence of the kingdom seems, more than at any former time, to depend on its navy. May that independence eternally subsist !

The preceding volumes of this work were noticed in our Review with some commendation, not unmixed with censure\*. To that part of the continuation which is now before us, the same character is not inapplicable.

This volume contains an account of those individuals who became captains in 1740, or in any of the six following years. The first comparatively copious article is that which concerns the duke of Bolton, whom the biographer vindicates from unjust censures. A sketch of the life of vice-admiral Cotes immediately follows ; and his character is represented in a very favourable light. Sir Thomas Frankland is praised for his activity, but is blamed with reason for his ill-treatment of commodore Pye. Admiral Holburne is not defended by the author, except in a borrowed note, from the censure to which he exposed himself by his dilatory conduct in the expedition to Cape Breton : but the following anecdote is recorded to his honour :

‘ During his passage to England, from America, we believe from Louisburg, in which, as it is well known, he encountered a most violent and tremendous tempest, he had observed a young officer particularly diligent, active, and useful on so trying an occasion ; but at the same time had taken notice of his striking several of the common men whom he thought slow or remiss in their duty. When the tempest had in some measure subsided, he sent for the young gentleman into his cabin, and addressed him in the following manner : “ Sir, I have observed, with the greatest pleasure, your diligence and exertions ; I shall, in consequence of them, use my utmost endeavours to procure your promotion, but if I ever know that you again strike a seaman, from that moment I renounce you—you will lose all pretensions to my favour and friendship.”’  
P. 42.

In the life of sir Charles Hardy, who, as many of our read-

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\* See our XXth Vol. New Arr. p. 247.

ers may remember, commanded the channel fleet at the time of the menacing appearance of the French and Spanish fleets before Plymouth, Mr. Charnock has introduced what he styles 'a very exact and correct list of the enemy's force.' From this list it appears, that the ships of the line amounted to 67; a number not very different from that which we recollect to have been stated at the time; namely, 66. The guns, taken in the average, were above 72 to each ship. The French had 36 sail of the line on this occasion; the Spaniards, only 31. The British admiral had only 'forty-four ships of two and three decks, many of which were ill-manned, and in other respects unfit for service:' for avoiding an engagement, therefore, he deserved no blame. He is described by our author as 'brave, prudent, gallant, and enterprising—generous, mild, affable, and intelligent.'

Sir Thomas Pye is properly mentioned as

'an officer who affords an example of the possibility of passing through life, and attaining the highest rank in the service, without the happiness of experiencing a single opportunity of distinguishing himself, except by those qualities which are little valued by the million, though highly to be regarded and honoured by the discerning.' P. 112.

After accounts of sir Charles Saunders, sir Francis Geary, and other eminent officers, and of many who were less distinguished, we meet with a long narrative of the life of lord Rodney, whose good fortune was at least equal to his merit. Mr. Charnock says of this commander,

'Though he was condemned by some \*, he experienced no harder fate than has befallen many of his very brave cotemporaries. Applauded, as we have seen him, by a much greater number, his merit must be in some degree admitted, as it enabled him to stem completely a torrent of censure, which though probably not entirely undeserved, was at least unwarrantably exaggerated, and industriously propagated by every art, some of them of the meanest kind, which the malignity of his enemies could invent.' P. 227.

'Though in private life he possessed a contempt of money, which led him into extravagancies and difficulties scarcely justifiable, or pitiable, yet those very distresses appear to have carried with them a sufficient punishment to render all posthumous censure unnecessary. Even his most violent opponents must admit, that no commander ever yet lived who had the good fortune to achieve so many notable services, or reduce and destroy, by the fleet under his immediate command, so great a number of the enemy's ships.' P. 228.

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\* For his conduct at St. Eustatia, and some instances of supposed negligence.



The account of lord Keppel is eked out by the introduction of various papers, of which the substance might have been satisfactorily given within a short compass. The article is thus concluded:

‘ It will be almost impossible to attempt any delineation of his lordship’s character without incurring censure, either from his admirers, or those of a different description. This will ever be the case with a man who, by unfortunately having merits and qualities attributed to him superior to those he really possessed, has induced a denial from his opponents of such virtues as they would without opposition have unanimously allowed him the possession of, had not his friends, by their imprudent attempt to raise him into something more than an hero, caused the former to counterbalance extravagant panegyric by ill-founded censure. Prior to that ill-fated event, which all men must admit was injurious to the country, the service, and his own fame, he was the idol of all parties and ranks, whether in or out of service: his bravery, his prudence, his activity, his diligence, he had happily afforded reiterated proofs of: a frankness of disposition, an affability, that trait of character usually distinguished by the appellation of good humour, had acquired him, among the seamen, a degree of love bordering almost on adoration. To a character anonymously given of him at the time of his decease it is subjoined, “ That on every occasion he proved himself the friend of the meritorious, and the seaman’s protector; and that no officer in the service possessed the love of the navy equal to himself.”

‘ There was, however, a manifest alteration, both in his disposition and carriage, after his accession to the high rank he held in the ministry, an alteration painfully observed by his warmest admirers; his former apparent openness and freedom of behaviour became, probably through necessity, converted into reserve; and his good nature sunk into an habit of promising those things which neither his power allowed, and, perhaps, on many occasions his inclination did not induce him to fulfil. This change caused him, by insensible degrees, to lose much of that popularity he had before acquired; and it is by no means certain, if chance, or the political current of affairs had permitted him to continue much longer moving in the public sphere, he would have experienced \* the same mortifying reverse which has, ever since the existence of governments, occasionally attended the brightest meteors of popularity. As it was, he lived not to acquire the dignity of being publicly hated, but passed through the latter end of life unmolested, unsatisfied, and nearly unnoticed.

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\* The context requires, that the passage—*it is by no means certain . . . . he would have experienced*—should thus be altered: *it is probable that he would have experienced, or it is by no means certain that he would not have experienced.* R.

'With many excellent qualities possessed by this gentleman were certainly mingled some failings, a consequence naturally attendant on the imperfection of human nature; and those who wish to impress on posterity consummate perfection of character, are certainly guilty of premeditated flattery and falsehood.' P. 345.

Sir Peter Denis is highly praised: commodore Forest receives just encomium: the courage and the 'nice feelings' of captain Gardiner (who served under admiral Byng, and was mortally wounded in the memorable action with the Foudroyant) are honourably mentioned: anecdotes are given of the 'high spirit' and 'rough pleasantry' of admiral Gayton; and vice-admiral Byron is said to have 'died with the universal and justly-acquired reputation of a brave and excellent officer, but of a man extremely unfortunate.'

Earl Howe is introduced among those who were promoted to the rank of captain in the year 1746. His exploits and services are regularly traced from that time to 1796, when he became 'admiral of the fleet, as being the senior officer on the list of admirals.' It is not probable that he will ever again enter into active service.

Sir Hugh Palliser is more mildly treated by this biographer than he would have been by a professed advocate of Keppel; but it is admitted, that 'his friends may wish he had in some few points acted differently from *what he did*,' and that he 'possessed a warm temper.'

If this work should be continued on the scale hitherto followed, it will prove very voluminous; but it might be rendered more acceptable to the public, by the omission of many articles which are certainly uninteresting.

*Dr. Johnson's Table-Talk: containing Aphorisms on Literature, Life, and Manners, with Anecdotes of distinguished Persons: selected and arranged from Mr. Boswell's Life of Johnson. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Dilly. 1798.*

THE editor had begun to digest Mr. Boswell's lively volume of memorabilia under general heads, before the death of that gentleman. The present compilation is the result. The form is more pleasing; the materials are better arranged; and, by the omission of many trifles, the whole is rendered more worthy of Dr. Johnson. The volume has lost some of its zest from want of novelty; but many of the opinions are so just, and are expressed in language so energetic, that it will always be interesting.

As we followed Mr. Boswell so minutely on his first appearance, we have little to observe on the present occasion,



except to announce the volume, and give some specimens of our moralist's appearance in his more contracted state, when

'The huge great body that the giant bore  
Is vanish'd quite, and of that monstrous mass  
But little left.'——

We shall first transcribe some of the remarks under the head of 'education.'

'In one of Mr. Dilly's literary parties, somebody was mentioned as having wished that Milton's "Tractate on Education" should be printed along with his poems in the edition of the English Poets then going on. Johnson said, "It would be breaking in upon the plan; but would be of no great consequence. So far as it would be any thing it would be wrong. Education in England has been in danger of being hurt by two of its greatest men, Milton and Locke. Milton's plan is impracticable, and I suppose has never been tried; Locke's, I fancy, has been tried often enough, but is very imperfect; it gives too much to one side, and too little to the other: it gives too little to literature.

'On another occasion he said, "Where there is no education, as in savage countries, men will have the upper hand of women. Bodily strength, no doubt, contributes to this; but it would be so, exclusive of that; for it is mind that always governs. When it comes to dry understanding, man has the better." P. 72.

Speaking of the difference between reason and instinct, Johnson

'repeated an argument, which is to be found in his "Rambler," against the notion that the brute creation is endowed with the faculty of reason: "birds build by instinct; they never improve; they build their first nest as well as any one that they ever build." Goldsmith said, "Yet we see if you take away a bird's nest with the eggs in it, she will make a flighter nest, and lay again."—Johnson. "Sir, that is because at first she has full time and makes her nest deliberately. In the case you mention she is pressed to lay, and must therefore make her nest quickly, and consequently it will be flight."—G. "The nidification of birds is what is least known in natural history, though one of the most curious things in it." P. 73.

The following observations on hospitality, under the title of 'Manners,' deserve attention.

'Being asked how far he thought wealth should be employed in hospitality, he answered, "You are to consider, that ancient hospitality, of which we hear so much, was in an uncommercial country, when men being idle were glad to be entertained at rich men's tables; but in a commercial country, in a busy country, time becomes precious, and therefore hospitality is not so much valued. No doubt there is still room for a certain degree of it; and a man

has a satisfaction in seeing his friends eating and drinking around him : but promiscuous hospitality is not the way to gain real influence. You must help some people at table before others ; you must ask some people how they like their wine oftener than others. You therefore offend more people than you please. You are like the French statesman who said when he granted a favour, '*J'ai fait dix mécontents et un ingrat.*' Besides, sir, being entertained ever so well at a man's table, impresses no lasting regard or esteem. No, sir, the way to make sure of power and influence is, by lending money confidentially to your neighbours at a small interest, or perhaps at no interest at all, and having their bonds in your possession."—Boswell. "May not a man, sir, employ his riches to advantage in educating young men of merit?"—Johnson. "Yes, sir, if they fall in your way ; but if it be understood that you patronize young men of merit, you will be harassed with solicitations. You will have numbers forced upon you who have no merit ; some will force them upon you from mistaken partiality ; and some from downright interested motives, without scruple ; and you will be disgraced. For hospitality as formerly practised, there is no longer the same reason ; heretofore the poorer people were more numerous, and, from want of commerce, their means of getting a livelihood more difficult ; therefore the supporting them was an act of great benevolence ; now that the poor can find maintenance for themselves, and their labour is wanted, a general undiscerning hospitality tends to ill, by withdrawing them from their work to idleness and drunkenness. Then formerly rents were received in kind, so that there was a great abundance of provisions in possession of the owners of the lands, which, since the plenty of money afforded by commerce, is no longer the case.

"Hospitality to strangers and foreigners in our country is now almost at an end, since, from the increase of them that come to us, there have been a sufficient number of people that have found an interest in providing inns and proper accommodations, which is in general a more expedient method for the entertainment of travellers. Where the travellers and strangers are few, more of that hospitality subsists, as it has not been worth while to provide places of accommodation. In Ireland there is still hospitality to strangers in some degree ; in Hungary and Poland probably more." P. 106.

We will select another passage, as it is curious.

"Mr. Beauclerk's great library was after his death sold in London by auction. Mr. Wilkes said, he wondered to find in it such a numerous collection of sermons, seeming to think it strange that a gentleman of Mr. Beauclerk's character in the gay world, should have chosen to have many compositions of that kind.—"Why, sir (said Johnson), you are to consider, that sermons make a considerable branch of English literature ; so that a library must be very imperfect if it has not a numerous collection of sermons ; and in all



collections, sir, the desire of augmenting it grows stronger in proportion to the advance in acquisition; as motion is accelerated by the continuance of the *impetus*. Besides, sir (looking at Mr. Wilkes with a placid but significant smile), a man may collect sermons with intention of making himself better by them. I hope Mr. Beauclerk intended, that some time or other that should be the case with him."

' Sir John Pringle had expressed a wish to have Dr. Johnson's opinion what were the best English sermons for style. Mr. B. one day took an opportunity of mentioning several to him. Atterbury?—Johnson. "Yes, sir, one of the best."—Boswell. "Tillotson?"—J. "Why not now. I should not advise a preacher at this day to imitate Tillotson's style; though I don't know; I should be cautious of objecting to what has been applauded by so many suffrages.—South is one of the best, if you except his peculiarities, and his violence, and sometimes coarseness of language. Seed has a very fine style; but he is not very theological.—Jortin's sermons are very elegant.—Sherlock's style too is very elegant, though he has not made it his principal study. And you may add Smallridge. All the latter preachers have a good style. Indeed, nobody now talks much of style: every body composes pretty well. There are no such unharmonious periods as there were a hundred years ago. I should recommend Dr. Clarke's sermons, were he orthodox. However, it is very well known where he was not orthodox, which was upon the doctrine of the Trinity, as to which he is a condemned heretic; so one is aware of it."—B. "I like Ogden's sermons on prayer very much, both for neatness of style and subtilty of reasoning."—J. "I should like to read all that Ogden has written."—B. "What I wish to know is, what sermons afford the best specimen of English pulpit eloquence."—J. "We have no sermons addressed to the passions that are good for any thing; if you mean that kind of eloquence."—A clergyman (whose name I do not recollect) asked, "Were not Dodd's sermons addressed to the passions?"—J. "They were nothing, sir, be they addressed to what they may."

' Sir Joshua Reynolds praised Mudge's sermons. — Johnson. "Mudge's sermons are good, but not practical. He grasps more sense than he can hold; he takes more corn than he can make into meal; he opens a wide prospect, but so distant, that it is indistinct. I love Blair's sermons. Though the dog is a Scotchman, and a presbyterian, and every thing he should not be, I was the first to praise them. Such was my candour (smiling)."—Mrs. Boscawen. "Such his great merit to get the better of all your prejudices."—J. "Why, madam, let us compound the matter; let us ascribe it to my candour and his merit." P. 343.

The heads, under which the different passages are arranged, seem not to have been very judiciously chosen, nor are they

very comprehensive ; but the critic must be fastidious to whom this will give pain.

It has been observed, that the collectors of Johnson's anecdotes were not sufficiently careful of his 'fair fame.' When a quantity was procured, the whole was published. What he said in the moments of impatience, spleen, or pain, was not spared ; and the effusions of ill nature, of which the reflections of the night led him to repent, were collected and published with avidity. An objection so often made should have had more influence with the present editor. Our recollection does not assist us in determining how much of this kind has been suppressed ; but we see too much of it in this epitome. Should it ever reach another edition, the friends to the memory of Johnson will wish for the curtailment of some parts ; and they can probably communicate as much as will compensate the diminution of the volume.

*The Gentleman's and Connoisseur's Dictionary of Painters. Containing a complete Collection, and Account, of the most distinguished Artists, who have flourished in the Art of Painting at Rome, Venice, Naples, Florence, and other Cities of Italy ; in Holland, Flanders, England, Germany, or France ; from the Year 1250, when the Art of Painting was revived by Cimabue, to the Year 1767 ; including above Five Hundred Years, and the number of Artists amounting to near One Thousand Four Hundred. Extracted from the most authentic Writers who have treated on the Subject of Painting, in Latin, Italian, Spanish, English, French, Low Dutch, &c. By the Rev. M. Pilkington, A. M. Vicar of Donabate and Portraine, in the Diocese of Dublin. A New Edition. To which is added, a Supplement : containing Anecdotes of the latest and most celebrated Artists, including several by Lord Orford ; also Remarks on the present State of the Art of Painting, by James Barry, Esq. R. A. Professor of Painting to the Royal Academy. 4to. 1l. 17s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

THOUGH a considerable period has elapsed from the first publication of this dictionary, which was noticed in our XXXth volume, it has continued to be a standard work, and almost the only performance of the kind, of an extent equal to the importance of the subject. A new edition, however, was long desired. We formerly observed, that the author's predilection for the Flemish painters had induced him to pass over, in a cursory manner, those of the Italian school ; and we lamented that, as his characters of painters were not drawn from observation of their works, with the assistance of a cor-



rect scientific taste, but from numerous authors whose opinions differed, his criticisms were not always just or consistent. For this reason, many persons were induced to wish for a new work from the hands of an artist or a connoisseur, whose taste and extensive knowledge of paintings would have supplied the deficiencies of Mr. Pilkington's performance. Yet perhaps the public would not have greatly gained. Taste is often capricious: those who are allowed to be the best judges often value what others think meanly of, and, on the contrary, will sometimes despise what the generality of persons admire. A judicious collection from, and a comparison of the opinions of, the best authors, will often supply, by labour, what genius would not stoop to, or what taste alone would not afford. Mr. Pilkington's diligence has never been questioned; and his merits, on the whole, have been acknowledged. It might therefore have been improper to take the work out of his hands.

The supplement is our only object at this time. It contains accounts of some painters who escaped Mr. Pilkington's notice in the former edition, and of some whose deaths were subsequent to the date of that publication. We regret that some additions and occasional alterations were not made in the dictionary itself, that the names added are so few, and that the accounts of some of the artists are so barren. The new lives are those of Barret, who died in 1784; Battoni, who died in 1786; Cooper, 1743; Cotes, 1770; Gainsborough, 1788; Hayman, 1776; Highmore, 1780; Hogarth, 1764; Hudson, 1779; Jervas, 1739; Knapton, 1778; Louis and John Laguerre, 1721 and 1748; Lambert, 1765; Lens, 1741; Liotard; Mengs, 1779; Monamy, 1749; Mortimer, 1779; Nollkins, 1748; Phillips; Piazzetta, 1754; Sir Joshua Reynolds, 1792; Richardson, 1745; Scott, 1772; Tavernier; Vernet, 1786; Viani of Bologna, 1711; Wilson, 1782; Wotton, 1765; Worlidge, 1766; Wordsdale and Zincke, 1767.

Of these articles the execution is unequal; and, in general, the pictures want the glow and warmth of colouring, distinguishable in an artist who works *con amore*. The author seems to have given way, in the prosecution of his task, to listless *ennui*: his attention may have been distracted by other objects, or not eagerly engaged in those which were before him. Had the work been longer delayed, he might have availed himself of some judicious criticisms of Mr. Jackson on the works and manner of sir Joshua Reynolds and Mr. Gainsborough.

In selecting a specimen, we feel some difficulty. We are attracted by the amiable and ingenious Mortimer, by the eccentric Gainsborough, and the masterly Reynolds. We will

fix, however, on the concluding part of the account of the late president of the academy, as it is superior, in point of style, to the rest of the work, and deserves attention in other points of view.

In many respects, both as a man and as a painter, sir Joshua Reynolds cannot be too much praised, studied, and imitated by every one who wishes to attain the like eminence. His incessant industry, never wearied into despondency by miscarriage, or elated into neglect by success, has already been noticed: in addition to which it may be further said, that when the man went abroad, he did not leave the painter at home: he practised his profession every where else, as well as in his painting room. All nature and all art was his academy; and his mind was constantly awake, ever on the wing, comprehensive, vigorous, discriminating and retentive. With taste to perceive all the varieties of the picturesque, judgment to select, and skill to combine what would serve his purpose; few have ever been empowered by nature to do more from the funds of his own genius, and none ever endeavoured more to take advantage of the labours of others, in making a splendid and useful collection of which no expence was spared: his house was filled to the remotest corners with casts from the antique pictures, statues, drawings, and prints, by the various masters of all the different schools and nations. Those he looked upon as his library, with this advantage, that they decorated at the same time that they instructed. They claimed his constant attention, objects at once of amusement, of study, and of competition.

Beautiful and seducing as his style undoubtedly was, it cannot be recommended in so unreserved a manner as his industry both in study and practice. Colouring was evidently his first excellence, to which all others were more or less sacrificed; and though in splendor and brilliancy he was exceeded by Rubens and Paul Veronese, in force and depth by Titian and Rembrandt, and in freshness and truth by Velasquez and Vandyke, yet perhaps he possessed a more exquisite combination of all these qualities, and that peculiarly his own, than is to be found in the works of either of those celebrated masters.

In history, he does not appear to possess much fertility of invention; as, whenever he has introduced a striking figure, it may commonly be traced and found to belong to some of his predecessors; and at the utmost, he can only be allowed the merit of skilful adaptation: but in portrait, the variety of his attitudes and backgrounds is unequalled by any painter, ancient or modern, and that variety is generally accompanied with grace in the turn of his figures and dignity in the airs of his heads.

Drawing, as he himself candidly confesses, was the part of the art in which he was most defective; and from a desire perhaps to hide this defect, with an over-solicitude to produce a superabundant richness of effect, he was too frequently tempted to fritter his



lights and cut up his composition, particularly if it happened to be large, into too many parts : in his smaller histories however, where he had only a few heads to manage, and in portraits, his composition, both with regard to the adaptation and contrast of lines, and the disposition of the masses of light and shadow, is often very excellent.

‘ In execution, though he wanted the firmness and breadth necessary to the highest style of art, the spirit and sweetness of his touch was admirable, and would have been more remarkable had he been more a master of drawing ; but not being readily able to determine his forms, he was obliged to go over and over the same part, till some of the vivacity of his handling was frequently lost : his labour however was never wholly lost, for he added to the force and harmony of his picture by every repetition.

‘ His style is precisely that which in his discourses he denominates the ornamental ; and it is remarkable, that the beauties of this style, which it was his constant delight to contemplate, his constant endeavour to attain, and which he did attain to an almost unexampled degree of excellence, he treats in his writings with a severity bordering on contempt ; while the grand style, the beauties of which he probably never attempted, is spoken of in a manner approaching to idolatry : not only its severe and majestic simplicity, but its dryness, accidental hardness of manner, and inharmonious effect, proceeding evidently from want of skill in the artist, are excused, and almost insisted on as essential beauties. His theory indeed was nearly in all points in direct opposition to his practice, for he devoted his life almost entirely to portrait-painting ; yet in his discourses, after having discriminated the grand from the subordinate styles, and asserted that the pretensions of the professor of the latter to the name of painter, are just what the epigrammatist and sonnetteer have to the title of poet, he says, “ In the same rank, or perhaps lower, is the cold painter of portraits.” For this dereliction of his theory, he has, when it was hinted to him, been heard to make two excuses : First, “ that he adapted his style to the taste of his age.” But ought not a great man, placed at the head of the art, to endeavour to lead and improve the taste of the public, instead of being led and corrupted by it ? Secondly, “ that a man does not always do what he would, but what he can.” This, whatever truth there may be in it, certainly comes with an ill grace from the mouth of one who constantly and confidently maintained in his writings, “ that by exertion alone every excellence, of whatever kind, even taste and genius itself, might be acquired.”

‘ The fact is, perhaps, that he never truly felt the excellence of the grand style, of which his disappointment at the first sight of the works of Raffaele in the Vatican, in addition to his violent opposition to it in his practice, is a strong proof. He wrote from his head, but he painted from his heart ; and the world probably loses

nothing by his not having had an opportunity of putting his resolution in practice, of adopting the style of Michael Angelo, could he have been permitted to begin the world again; a declaration made evidently without a proper appreciation of his powers, which do not at all appear to have been calculated for excelling in that style.' p. 818.

The life of Mortimer is written with a warmth of affection for the man (and who that knew him did not feel that affection in the fullest glow?) though not with sufficient ardor for the artist. Little is said of Gainsborough, besides what is copied from one of the academic discourses of Reynolds.

Of Wilson, who was an excellent painter, Mr. Pilkington speaks with the warmth of an artist. We will extract a part of this article.

'It may be said of this artist, with great truth, *nil molitur ineptè*. His taste was so exquisite, and his eye so chaste, that whatever came from his easel bore the stamp of elegance and truth. The subjects he chose were such as did a credit to his judgment. They were the selections of taste; and whether of the simple, the elegant, or the sublime, they were treated with an equal felicity. Indeed, he possessed that versatility of power, as to be one minute an eagle sweeping the heavens, and the next, a wren twittering a simple note on the humble thorn.

'His colouring was in general vivid and natural; his touch, spirited and free; his composition, simple and elegant; his lights and shadows, broad and well distributed; his middle tints in perfect harmony, while his forms in general produced a pleasing impression. Wilson has been called the English Claude; but how unjustly, so totally different their style! To draw a parallel between the two artists, we should say, that the Frenchman too often fatigues by the detail: he enters too far into the minutiae of nature, —he painted her littlenesses. Wilson, on the contrary, gives a breadth to nature, and adopts only those features that more eminently attract attention. Claude, proud of shewing to the world the truth of his eye, in regard to the aerial perspective, produces a number of petty parts, paltry projections, such as hedges, banks, hillocks, &c. to prove his power in a certain department of painting, which, though far from contemptible, is very distant from the higher orders of the art. Claude introduces, at times, groups of unmeaning and uninteresting figures; while Wilson introduces a paucity, but such as are not only appropriate to the scene, but form a part of the composition. The mind of Wilson was that of a classic; the mind of Claude, of a mechanic, dead to the energies of classic sensibility. The pencil of Claude was capable only of describing the general appearances of nature; that of Wilson,



to clothe them with elegance and grandeur. Claude, possessing no abstract idea of beauty, was confined to the individual merit of the scene: Wilson, on the contrary, gifted with the charming ideal, could fascinate by combination. Claude was a pretty, simple, country girl; Wilson was a beauty of a higher order, commanding the graces, and uniting them to simplicity. Claude sometimes painted grand scenes, but without a mind of grandeur; Wilson, on the contrary, could infuse a grandeur into the meanest objects. Claude, when he drew upon the bank of his own ideas, was a mere castrato in the art; witness the landing of Æneas in Italy. How poverty-struck the scene!—an enterprize destitute of motion—a few clumsy vessels, with a few figures, more resembling Dutch boys unloading at a London wharf, than ships arrived with an army, to form the Roman empire, and give a race to immortality. Wilson, on the contrary, was a Hercules. When his subject was grand, he clothed it with thunder; witness his Celadon and Amelia, his Niobe, &c. To compare their works that demanded imagination, were to draw a parallel between strength and imbecillity, the two miserable statues of Johnson and Howard in St. Paul's cathedral, and the labours of Praxiteles. Claude was rather the plain and minute historian of landscape; Wilson was the poet.

‘It is to be regretted, that Wilson and Reynolds, the two leviathans of the art, and congenial in their painting powers, should have entertained a jealousy of each other. But a coldness, bordering on contempt, betrayed itself too often in both; in short, they could scarcely be civil; witness the following little anecdote: at a convivial meeting of the royal academicians, sir Joshua (who perceived not Wilson at his elbow), after launching out into encomiums on the merits of Gainsborough, declared that he was the first landscape-painter in England. “Not the first landscape-painter,” replied Wilson, “but every judge must allow Mr. Gainsborough to be the first portrait-painter.” The assertions of both were destitute of candour and truth; at the same time it must be confessed, that Gainsborough's orb moved in a sphere not much inferior to theirs.’ P. 823.

To the dictionary are subjoined Mr. Barry's remarks on the present state of the art of painting. These observations are well known, and need not detain us. But we cannot conclude our article without commending this volume as a valuable repository of facts and observations on the subject of the arts and artists—of information scattered in numerous volumes, and (in many of them) interrupted by trifling disquisitions or unimportant anecdotes.

*Geographical Illustrations of Scottish History, containing the Names of Places mentioned in Chronicles, Histories, Records, &c. with Corrections of the corrupted Names, and Explanations of the difficult and disputed Points, in the historical Geography of Scotland; the Names being alphabetically arranged, with References to their Position in the historical Map of Scotland, which accompanies the Work: together with a compendious Chronology of the Battles to the Year 1603; collected from the best Authorities, historical and geographical, by David Macpherson. 4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. Nicol. 1796.*

THE want of an accurate geographical accompaniment of the history of Scotland has long been a ground of inconvenience and complaint. The idea of providing a remedy for this deficiency was long entertained by Mr. Macpherson; and the present publication is the fruit of his diligent researches.

The work and the map are so closely connected, that many parts of the former are mere names, attended only with references to the latter. Other names are followed by short *memoranda*; but some of the articles are more copious, because they relate to points which have been frequently or strongly contested.

The longest article in the work is that which respects the isles.

‘ In these islands’ (it is said) ‘ the Scots appear to have effected their first British settlements about the middle of the third century under Riada or Reuda, whose name perhaps remains in Rothsay, the ancient appellation of Bute, though afterwards restricted to the capital of it. About the year 500 the isles on the west side of Erygl appear to have been subject to Enegus, the son of Erk, and brother of Fergus. It was in Hyora, one of these isles, that Columba established the seat of his spiritual empire, whence religion, learning, and science, such as they were then known, were disseminated, not only over the adjacent isles, but also over Scotland, and a great part of England.

‘ As the possession of islands must ever follow the dominion of the sea, all the islands adjacent to Scotland were frequently plundered, and (excepting the few small ones in the Forth) at length, about the year 900, completely occupied by piratical rovers, and exiles from Norway, who were unwilling to submit to Harold Harfagur, then established monarch of all the petty kingdoms of Norway. Harold some time after made an expedition against Orkney and Hialtland (or Scetland), which he subdued, and erected them into an iarldom (or earldom) to be held of the crown of Norway, which he bestowed on one of his nobles and his heirs.



He also sent an officer, called Ketil (whose ample possessions in Norway he wanted to seize for himself) to subdue the islands on the west side of Scotland, and to govern them in his name. Ketil, having established himself, and conciliated the affections of the principal people of the islands, set up for an independent king; and his successors during many centuries retained the regal title and dignity, generally acknowledging however the feudal superiority of the kings of Norway, and fixing the seat of their little maritime empire in Mann.

‘ Under the government of these Norwegian princes the isles appear to have been very flourishing. They were crowded with people; the arts were cultivated; and manufactures were carried to a degree of perfection, which was then thought excellence.’

Mr. Macpherson is of opinion, that the *Lothene* of the Saxon Chronicle did not include any part of modern England, though some historians and antiquaries speak of that province as having been the same with Northumberland, or as having included this county. He endeavours to prove, that the name in question was applied to a part of the country between the Forth and the Tweed; that Scotland was long considered as bounded to the southward by the former of those rivers; and that, though *England* is mentioned in the Chronicle as the territory within which Lothene was comprehended, it was that part of the country of the Angles which lay to the northward of the Tweed. But his arguments are not decisive; and we are rather inclined to adopt the opinion of those who have extended the boundaries of Lothene to the river Tyne.

When he treats of the Picts, he does not enter into any discussion respecting their origin; but what he says of them may be pronounced to be correct.

‘ When the Romans first passed the Forth, this nation appears to have possessed most of the country beyond it. Notwithstanding the praises heaped upon Agricola, it is certain, that he made no conquest of any part of the Pictish territory, which remained free from the Roman yoke till about A. D. 140, when the east and middle parts of the country from the Forth to the Farar were reduced to the form of a Roman province. This subjection however lasted but a very short time; for about 170 the Picts had the honour to lop off the first branch of the overgrown empire of the Romans by expelling them from their scarcely formed province of Vespasiana. They afterwards took possession of the greatest part of the province of Valentia, which lay between the two Roman walls; and it seems probable, that they spread as far south as the Humber. All the various divisions of them to the northward of the Tweed and the Sulway have at different times been united to the Scottish kingdom.’

Of the name of *Scotland*, and the territory to which it has at different times been applied, he thus speaks :

‘ The different applications of this name have been the source of much confusion in history, and of much indecent altercation. In ancient times the ruling people in Ireland were called Scots, as appears from the writings of St. Patrick ; and from them the island itself was called *Scotia* by those who wrote in Latin : but to the best of my knowledge no such names are used by any Irish, Welsh, or English authors, who wrote in their own languages. The name of Scots also belonged to the people, who occupied the shirredom of Ergyl, with the isles on both sides of it, under the conduct of Riada, or Reuda, about the middle of the third century ; though it does not appear, that their territory has ever been called *Scotia*. Neither does it appear, though the name of *Scottis* has been extended in after ages to all the Highlanders, and to their language, even exclusive of the Lowlanders [Wynt. VII. v. 30 ; IX. xiii. xvii.] that ever the name of *Scotland* was peculiarly appropriated to their part of the country. After the union of the Scots and Pichts the name of *Scotland* gradually superseded that of *Albany*, which, however, was not quite obsolete about the year 1300. The name of *Scotland* was used in the following acceptations : 1. The country between the *Scottis sè*, or *Wattyr of Forth*, and the *Mounth*. 2. From the *Forth* to the *Spey*. 3. All the country north of the *Forth*, except *Ergyl*. 4. All the country north of the *Forth*, including *Ergyl* ; and this was the extent of the jurisdiction of the justiciary of *Scotland*, the remainder of the kingdom on the south side of the *Forth* being under the justiciary of *Louthian*. 5. All the *Scottish dominions* on both sides of the *Forth* ; which is the present acceptance of the name.’

He is too superficial in the notice which he has taken of the kingdom of *Strathcluyd*. Even within the narrow limits which he prescribed to himself for his undertaking, we might have expected a longer account. A part of his sketch follows :

‘ The several British tribes between the two Roman walls, who in the latter ages of the empire were called by the general name of *Mæatae*, appear to have been crowded into the country of the *Damnonii* by the encroachments of the *Northumbrians* from the East and South. Thus compressed into a compact territory, and possessing the strong frontier castle of *Alcluyd* or *Dumbarton*, and apparently that of *Striveline*, they remained independent of the more powerful neighbouring kingdoms of the Scots, Pichts, and *Northumbrians*, for several centuries, during which they appear to have occupied *Kyle*, *Cunningham*, and the shirredoms of *Lanark*, *Dunbarton*, and *Striveline* ; though it is not probable,



that their boundaries remained fixed during all the ages of their existence. There is no doubt, that this little kingdom, surrounded by jealous neighbours, and sometimes plundered by foreign invaders, experienced many vicissitudes of fortune, which are lost to history. After the balance of power (to use a modern phrase) was destroyed in North Britain by the union of the Scots and Picts, Strathclyd appears to have sometimes courted an alliance with England; but was more frequently connected with, and at last entirely dependent upon, Scotland, though still under the nominal sovereignty of its own kings.'

The introduction of the English town of Workington was unnecessary; but the author thought that it had some connection with his subject, as being

'the first English ground trodden by the unfortunate queen Mary, when, relying on fair promises, and seemingly kind invitations, she threw herself upon the *friendship* of her worthy cousin Elizabeth.'

For his antiquarian labours, Mr. Macpherson deserves the thanks of his countrymen; for, though he may have erred in some particulars, his work will prove very useful to the readers of the history of North Britain. His map, we may add, is neatly and correctly executed.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### POLITICS AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS.

*An Enquiry into the Feasibility of the supposed Expedition of Buonaparte to the East.* By Eyles Irwin, Esq. 8vo. 11. Nicol. 1798.

THE result of Buonaparte's expedition still remains an object of anxious curiosity. Will he content himself with an establishment in Egypt, or aim at the destruction of our influence in India? The latter object is considered as ridiculous by Mr. Irwin, who, if the enterprising general should be so mad as to make the attempt, and to take one of the three 'routes of Suez, Busrah, or Isfahan,' endeavours to 'account for his certain failure in whichever he may adopt.' The difficulties are, without doubt, very great, and suffi-

cient to appall all the writers in the closet; but the palm of glory is not to be won by puny efforts, nor is the conqueror of Italy a Quixote to run headlong into unnecessary danger. If the failure of the expedition be as certain as it is said to be in this pamphlet, we must deny to the French every degree of merit in their plans; for there is not a single observation which has not occurred to every one at all acquainted with the routes to India. Buonaparte is here represented as a 'vain-glorious warrior,' and as one whose 'vanity and presumption, in epistolary composition, have not often been equaled.' The sultan Tippoo is the tyrant of Mysore; and our troops in the east are able to 'defeat the mad designs, and punish the perfidy, of his boasted allies the French republicans, with Buonaparte at their head.' It is easy to flourish with the pen; but it is not wise to treat an enemy with too much contempt.

*Reply to Irwin: or, the Feasibility of Buonaparte's supposed Expedition to the East, exemplified. By an Officer in the Service of the East India Company. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

On the subject of the expedition to Egypt, the language of this officer is more becoming than that of his antagonist.

'If we decline to applaud and admire that spirit of heroic enterprise which has hitherto marked the brilliant career of Buonaparte, because he is the enemy of our country; or appear insensible to that superior merit in others, which we are willing to magnify when applicable to ourselves; let us, if it be only in common justice to our country, avoid the fatal error of plunging into the gulf of delusion, by hoodwinking our senses in spite of undeniable facts, and influenced by a spirit of national pride or patriotism in refusing the tribute of merit wherever it may be deserved; let us, I say, at least recollect, that the most direful consequences have arisen from holding an enemy in contempt.' p. 24.

With regard to Mr. Irwin's grand difficulty, the want of shipping in the Red Sea, it is observed, that a number of vessels nearly sufficient may be procured by the French in that quarter by force or purchase; that the ships captured in the eastern seas may be brought to Egypt for this expedition; and that a great number of foreign ships will assist for hire in the undertaking. Indeed, can it be supposed that, if our colonies in India are to be attacked, the French have not made the necessary preparations for transporting their troops from the isthmus of Suez? It is possible that the same good fortune may attend them in their next embarkation, and that, having eluded our squadrons, they may leave their ships only to add to the triumphs of the English. The energy and good fortune of Buonaparte will prevent the prudent from prophesying too decisively of the end of his career.



*Buonaparte in Egypt: or, an Appendix to the Enquiry into his supposed Expedition to the East. By Eyles Irwin, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Nicol. 1798.*

The observations which occur in this pamphlet are more recommended by the dress in which they appear, than by their weight or profundity.

*Observations on the Expedition of General Buonaparte to the East; and the Probability of its Success considered. To which is added a brief Sketch of the present State of Egypt; an Historical Account of Alexandria; the two Harbours of that City accurately delineated, its former Splendour and present State contrasted; with some Remarks on its local Importance should it become the Mart of the East: together with a few Particulars relating to the Navigation of the Red Sea. By the Editor of the History of Peter III. and Catherine II. of Russia. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cawthorn. 1798.*

The remarks on the expedition are un-important; but a good description is given of the ancient and modern state of Alexandria; and the sketch of the population, manners, religion, soil, produce, animals, and government of Egypt, may be found useful.

*Two historic Dissertations. I. On the Causes of the ministerial Secession, A. D. 1717. II. On the Treaty of Hanover, concluded A. D. 1725. With some prefatory Remarks, in Reply to the Animadversions of the Rev. William Coxe, in his Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole. By William Belsham. 8vo. 3s. Robinsons. 1798.*

The publication of Mr. Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole gave rise to the present political production, in which a well-known writer investigates some points that had before fallen under his notice. The 'prefatory remarks' tend to the vindication of Mr. Belsham from the objections made by Mr. Coxe to particular passages of the Memoirs of the Kings of Great-Britain of the House of Brunswick. In the preface, the objector is treated with no small degree of contempt; and, in the second dissertation, he is by no means spared.

The causes of the secession of Walpole and some of his friends from the interest of the ruling party, appear to have been both of a personal and political nature—*personal*, inasmuch as the seceders, being selfish and ambitious, were disgusted at the superior influence of other advisers of the king—and *political*, as involving a real difference, in point of principle, on the subject of continental connexions. These causes our author intelligently examines; but we do not think that much is added to our former knowledge of the grounds of the secession.

The treaty of Hanover is placed by Mr. Belsham in a proper

light; and the biographer of Walpole is clearly confuted. The result of the inquiry is thus stated:

‘ Upon a general review of the evidence here adduced, is it possible seriously to maintain, “ that the treaty of Hanover originated,” as Mr. Coxe pretends, “ in an exclusive regard for the interests of Great Britain ?” By a series of unjust and impolitic measures, the result of a determination at all events to retain possession of the provinces of Bremen and Verden, the three great powers of Austria, Russia, and Spain were made the inveterate enemies of Britain. In order to resist the designs of so potent a confederacy, the court of London was reduced to the necessity of forming an anti-coalition, and of throwing itself with its whole immense weight, into the scale of France, in opposition to the house of Austria, its natural ally. But if the interests of Great Britain, and not the aggrandizement of the electorate of Hanover, had been the real object of the king of England, he would undoubtedly have restored Bremen and Verden to Sweden; he would have withdrawn his guarantee of Sleswick from Denmark, he would have relinquished his claims upon Mecklenburg, and have acceded to the edict of the Pragmatic Sanction. The confederacy of Vienna would by this means have been at once dissolved; the enmity of the emperor would have been converted into friendship and gratitude; the Ostend company would have been annihilated, and all things would have reverted to their natural and antient state. In lieu of which obvious and rational policy, the king of England, resolute to retain his usurpations and to enforce his claims, strengthened himself on all sides in order to resist the combination of Vienna; and incurred the imminent risque of involving Europe in a new and more destructive war than that recently terminated by the treaty of Utrecht, rather than abandon his favourite project of engrossing the entire dominion of the circle of Lower Saxony. Fortunately, the pacific counsels of Walpole, assisted and confirmed by various secret co-adjutors, were not unavailingly employed in counteracting, and ultimately gained a complete ascendancy over the wild and extravagant projects of Townshend. On the most accurate and severe investigation of this part of his public conduct, sir Robert Walpole stands not only clear of reproach, but he is entitled to the highest approbation and applause.’ p. 84.

The conclusion of the pamphlet relates, in part, to recent times. The conduct of Mr. Pitt is strongly censured; and a curious quotation from D’Avenant is given, many parts of which, respecting the characters and proceedings of ministers, have the appearance of prophecy.

*State of the Country in the Autumn of 1798.* 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1798.

In this pamphlet, we meet with a highly-coloured picture of the



state of our affairs: but all the features of the copy do not resemble the original. The author of the sketch is so confident and sanguine, that we may pronounce him an absolute Quixote. *The deliverance of Europe*, of which his friends speak in such pompous terms, is only a part of his scheme; for we ought, he thinks, to aim at the rescue of the whole civilised world.

‘As long’ (he says) ‘as it shall appear to be the system of France to spread destruction over every part of the civilized world, to crush every government that disputes her will, and to measure her rights only by her power, it is a duty we owe to God, to ourselves, and to the world at large, to employ our whole strength in opposing her designs, and to assist and support every state which is desirous, however late, of taking up arms in the common defence. We hope it will not be our fate to contend alone; but whatever be the conduct of other countries, our determination is taken. They may crouch.—They may temporize.—They may submit.—We know our duty.—We feel as Christians and as men. In the issue of the present contest, the existence of all religion and all government, and the rights of human nature, are involved. We trust we have the spirit, we know we have the power, to defend them.’

P. 31.

*A Letter to the Right Hon. Earl Cholmondeley on the Civil Policy of the Ancients. By the Rev. Dr. Clarke, Secretary for the Library, and Chaplain to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. To which is prefixed an Enumeration of the Confiscations, &c. of the French Nation, extracted from Official Documents. Translated from the German. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Clarke. 1799.*

The only valuable parts of this pamphlet are the enumeration of the confiscations, and the list of the countries conquered by France, which have all the appearance of accuracy, and ought to be in the hands of every man who values the independence of his country. The total loss of Europe, in money, goods, and territory, since the commencement of the war, is represented as exceeding one thousand six hundred and ninety-one millions sterling. Of this sum £. 143,290,707 are set down as contributions or requisitions in ready money. May it not be asked what has become of this immense sum? The French, it appears from their late financial reports, are poor; and the conquered nations are still poorer. If there be not a miscalculation in this business, it has the air of a paradox.

*The Conduct of the Admiralty, in the late Expedition of the Enemy to the Coast of Ireland, as stated by Ministers, in the House of Commons, on the third of March, 1797: with an authentic Copy of the Official Papers on that Subject, ordered to be printed by Parliament. 4to. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1797.*

This defence wears a plausible aspect. It tends to establish two

points; 1. that the orders given, and the measures taken in obedience to those orders, were such as could leave no ground for blame, and would, on the contrary, afford a complete justification of the admiralty, and of the officers employed; and, 2. that, calculated as those orders and those measures were to ensure (as far as human judgment and foresight could effect) the defeat of the designs of the French, by the destruction of their armament, that destruction was only prevented by the state of the weather. Many documents are added to this defence, for the perusal of those who wish to enter into a minute scrutiny of the conduct of the admiralty on that important occasion.

*Now, or never: or, Britain's Peace in her own Power.* 8vo. 6d.  
Hatchard. 1798.

This pamphlet appears to have been written in the first paroxysm of joy excited by lord Nelson's victory. In that rapturous hour, the author saw the power of France humbled, and all nations rising against her to destroy that *principle* which prevents a general peace. But subsequent events have not realised the prospects of this *tyro* in politics.

#### PROPOSED UNION BETWEEN GREAT-BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

*Necessity of an incorporate Union between Great Britain and Ireland proved from the Situation of both Kingdoms. With a Sketch of the Principles upon which it ought to be formed.* 8vo. 2s. 6d.  
Wright. 1799.

The first sentence of this pamphlet contains an assertion which we were the more surprised to find, as the author cannot affect an ignorance of its total want of foundation. He says that 'government has hitherto remained silent upon the subject of an union' (which, indeed, might have been the case when he began to write), and that the idea of an union '*originates with the public*, and can be attributed to no other cause than a general conviction, that some arrangement must be formed between the countries to ensure their joint prosperity and mutual good understanding.' Now, besides that this is not a true statement, it is not necessary for his purpose that it should be true. If it were, he ought not to censure, as he has done in strong terms, the meetings which have been holden for the discussion of the measure before its introduction into parliament; for, if one part of the *public* may propose a measure, another may surely discuss it.

The main object of the pamphlet is to prove, that the present system is insufficient to promote the prosperity and ensure the tranquillity of the empire, and that an incorporating union, forming the two nations into one kingdom, subject to the same laws, and



governed by the same legislature, can alone accomplish those salutary effects. In support of these propositions, the writer maintains, that the arrangement of 1782, by giving Ireland independence, furnished her parliament with the means of dissenting from the British government, and that, although her ministers are appointed and her measures guided by the British cabinet, an occasion may probably occur, when the Irish parliament shall claim, *bond fide*, that independence which it now enjoys virtually, or rather nominally; and he instances the regency as a case in point. He also contends, that the present system is not likely to proceed, because, since the period above-mentioned, there has been a constant endeavour in Ireland to depart farther and farther from the connexion with Great-Britain. 'The fatal experience' (he adds) 'of eighteen years is surely sufficient to convince us, that if the old arrangement (*i. e.* previous to 1782) sacrificed the freedom of Ireland to the union of the kingdoms, the new has sacrificed that union to the existence of her separate legislature.'

In demonstrating his grand object, the author considers the objections which may be offered: 1. that an incorporating union would destroy the very name of Ireland as a nation; 2. that it would annihilate her government and her independence; 3. that it would greatly increase the preponderance of English influence, as every lucrative or important office would be conferred on Englishmen, the dependents of ministers; 4. that the number of absentees would be greatly augmented; 5. that Dublin, the present seat of the legislature, would be reduced to the state of an inconsiderable village; 6. that Ireland would be involved in the debts of Great-Britain, and her taxes would increase in an enormous degree.

The first objection appears trifling; and it is not answered with the most profound gravity. As to the second, our author has certainly settled the question in a manner which every *Englishman* will think convincing: but it is a question of prejudice, and, as Mr. Burke said on another occasion, 'we love prejudices, and love them because they are prejudices.' Besides, we do not think his language in this place likely to conciliate the Irish; for he scarcely avoids touching upon what has since been called, in plain terms, a 'beggarly independence.'

The other objections are more easily evaded; and, indeed, they depend upon the arrangements which may take place, rather than upon the discussion of the principal subject. In the same light we consider the remarks of this writer on the formation of the united legislature, and upon some other points.

All collateral matters will be more properly discussed, when the Irish shall consent to listen to the preliminaries; and, if they are disposed to make themselves fully acquainted with the arguments that are strongest in favour of an union, they may have recourse with advantage to this comprehensive pamphlet.

*A Letter to Joshua Spencer, Esq. on an Union, by William Johnson, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard. 1798.*

Mr. Spencer's Thoughts on an Union \* were among the first replies to the pamphlet, supposed to be written by Mr. Cooke. He endeavoured to prove, that, "circumstanced as Ireland and England now are, with respect to their own particular internal concerns, their mutual relation to each other as connected kingdoms, and the particular state of Europe at this moment, no possible union of the legislature of the two countries can be for the advantage of the former." In answer to this, Mr. Johnson observes, that Mr. Spencer has with-holden the process of investigation by which only he could arrive at such a conclusion; that he has talked of the honourable pride, the temper, and the feelings of an independent nation, of the loss of national honour, and the increase of public burthens; but that he has not shown in what way the pride of the Irish would be wounded, their honour injured, or their burthens augmented, &c. The writer of this letter, therefore, confines himself principally to these points; and he argues with some force in favour of *thinking* as preferable to that *feeling* or *sentiment* in which the Irish have been accustomed to indulge themselves. One good effect of the union, he supposes, would be to destroy that idea of *distinctness* which is perpetually present to the minds both of the British and Hibernian nation, and which at present seems to weaken, and might at length tend to dissolve, the connexion between the countries. He represents also in a strong point of view the advantages resulting from the union, which might render it safe to remove the complaints of the catholics by emancipation; a favour which cannot be extended to them under the present circumstances without a risque of danger, almost approaching to certainty. On other questions which have arisen from the general one, Mr. Johnson only touches cursorily. The principles which he has laid down, however, appear to be the well-founded result of unbiassed observation and free inquiry.

*Letters on the Subject of Union, in which Mr. Jebb's "Reply" is considered; and the Competence of Parliament to bind Ireland to an Union is asserted; by a Barrister and Member of Parliament. 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1799.*

The first three of these letters are addressed to Mr. Saurin, an Irish barrister, and are directed against the precipitation with which the gentlemen of the bar entered into resolutions against the union, without knowing of what kind it was to be, or whether it would be attended with the loss of independence or constitution so much dreaded. The other letters are addressed to Richard Jebb Esq. whose pamphlet came lately before us (See p. 94. of this volume).

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\* See our XXIVth Vol. p. 456.



Their principal aim is to assert the competence of parliament to bind Ireland to an union: and this is argued upon the authority of many eminent writers, particularly Coke and Blackstone. 'If they are right, our legislature is absolute: and if absolute, of course it is competent to enact union.' But, however competent parliament may be to vote a measure of this nature, our author does not lose sight of the expediency of attending in some measure to the voice of the people; and he therefore concludes his pamphlet with an address to the catholics, pointing out the advantages which they may reap from the union.

There is much good sense in these letters; but the arguments are not always so perspicuous as may be requisite in an appeal to inferior understandings.

*The Union, Cease your Funning.* 8vo. 6d. Debrett, 1799.

This is an ironical attack upon the author of 'Arguments for and against the Union.' For many years, perhaps, no political topic has been handled with equal force of humour. The author assumes the point that Mr. Cooke is an united Irishman, in the disguise of a ministerial secretary; and, on that assumption, he accounts for the imputation of incapacity which it has been lately the fashion to throw upon the Irish government, and hopes that such *jokers will cease their funning!*

*The Substance of the Speech of Robert Peel, Esq. in the House of Commons, on Thursday, the 14th of February, 1799, on the Question for receiving the Report of the Committee on the Resolutions respecting an Incorporate Union with Ireland. With a correct Copy of the Resolutions, as they were finally amended by the House of Commons.* 8vo. 6d. Stockdale. 1799.

Mr. Peel urges the common arguments in favour of the union; but he has, like many other persons, neglected to consider the real arguments against that measure. The question is, how far the constitution of this country can be preserved, when the introduction of a hundred new members from Ireland shall have rendered the influence of the crown superior to all restraint. One great instance of union has been tried; and, in general, the Scottish members have followed one line of conduct, whence it is natural to conclude that an importation of Irish members will be attended with a similar effect.

#### F I N A N C E.

*Observations on the Credit and Finances of Great Britain; in Reply to the Thoughts of the Earl of Lauderdale, and the Appeal of Mr. Morgan. By Daniel Wakefield, Esq.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1797.

The earl of Lauderdale, Mr. Morgan, and Mr. Wakefield, dis-

fer in their calculations by many millions. Mr. Wakefield talks of flippant eloquence, intentional misrepresentations, extravagant, fanciful, and delusive calculations, a conspiracy to delude the public, &c. of which, according to him, his opponents are guilty; and he comforts us with the idea, that the peace establishment will be only 5,216,800*l.* per annum; censuring lord Lauderdale and Mr. Morgan for having included in their estimates the interest of the national debt. Such a quibble does not deserve a moment's notice; but we regret that the complicated state of our finances should render it impossible to give a satisfactory decision respecting the points in dispute between this writer and his antagonists, whose merits in questions of calculation are generally acknowledged.

*A Measure productive of substantial Benefits to Government, the Country, the public Funds, and to Bank Stock. Respectfully submitted to the Governors, Directors, and Proprietors of the Bank of England. By Simeon Pope. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardsons. 1799.*

After wading through four pages of pompous inanity, we were happy to see, at the beginning of the next page, these words.—‘In plain English, France soon felt,’ &c. We were then in hopes of meeting with more reasonable remarks; but we soon found the writer again upon his stilts, and were lost in admiration of the grandeur of his conceptions, which are no less dignified than his stile. He appears also to be a sagacious prophet; for, if the tax on income should be continued three or four years, he foresees that the prosperity of the country will be ‘greater than ever was known.’ According to his principles of finance, we should overflow with wealth, if the minister would be kind enough to take nine tenths of our income. Though Mr. Pope might flatter us with a prospect of great advantages from such a measure, his rhetoric will perhaps be lost on the directors of the bank, to whom he recommends the following

‘Plan for giving energy to the important measures of government, by preventing a further funded loan in the present year.

‘Let the bank of England (under the sanction of parliament) advance to government, this year, the sum of ten millions, at an interest of four per cent. and payable in ten instalments, on the security or credit of the general income tax, for the ensuing year 1800—then to be optional in the bank proprietors to extend, or not, the loan to the year 1801—and so to every succeeding year as long as the tax shall exist.’

*A Proposal for liquidating 66,666,666  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the Three per Cents, by converting the Land-Tax into a permanent Annuity; with cursory Observations. Humbly submitted to both Houses of Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1798.*

The sale of the land-tax since the publication of this tract, the



tax upon income, and the prospect of other taxes, render this pamphlet less interesting than it might otherwise have been. Many of our readers, however, may wish to compare the effects of the act for the redemption of the land-tax with the previous conjectures on the eventual benefits of such a measure.

*Adam Smith, Author of an Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations; and Thomas Paine, Author of the Decline and Fall of the English System of Finance. A critical Essay, published in all Languages. Germany.*

*Adam Smith, Auteur des Recherches sur la Richesse des Nations; et Thomas Payne, Auteur de la Décadence et de la Ruine prochaine des Finances de l'Angleterre. Essai de Critique, publié dans toutes les Langues.*

Of this critical essay, published in all languages, we have seen only the English and the French. The English translation was executed by a foreigner; and it is full of foreign idioms. In the French the author may be better understood; but we admire his zeal more than his knowledge of the world, in the trouble he has taken to correct among all nations the political errors of Thomas Paine. Perhaps, however, Paine's work on finance may be in greater request on the continent than it is with us; and, if this be the case, the excellent quotations from Adam Smith, and the judicious opposition of one to the other, may be productive of some benefit. In this island the performance will not be eagerly sought; the topics are trite; and whatever the parties among us may think of the liberties reciprocally taken, all will be inclined to censure the foreigner who calls himself a cosmopolite, and yet discusses various questions relating to our constitution and government with the spirit and the personalities of a party writer.

### L A W.

*The Practice of the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas. Originally compiled by George Crompton, Esq. Revised, corrected, and newly arranged, by Baker John Sellon, Serjeant at Law. The second Edition, with the Addition of the modern Cases to the present Time, and a practical Treatise on the Mode of passing Fines, and suffering Recoveries. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. boards. Butterworth. 1798.*

Mr. Sellon's Practice is a compilation of acknowledged utility; and in the present edition there are corrections which evince the judgment of the compiler, as well as additions which increase the value of his work. The arrangement is, we think, improved, particularly in restoring the introduction, originally prefixed to Crompton's Practice, to its proper place, the beginning of the first volume.

*A Treatise on the Law of Homicide and of Larceny at common Law, by Robert Bevill, of the Inner Temple, Esq. Barrister at Law, 8vo. 6s. Boards. Clarke and Son.*

As an uncertainty much to be regretted has frequently prevailed in the construction of facts, charged as amounting to the offences of homicide and larceny, Mr. Bevill has carefully collected the various authorities on these important subjects, and has stated the principles which he supposes must have influenced the decision of the judges in many doubtful cases, with a correctness of inference, and a precision of language, which merit the applause of his profession.

### RELIGION.

*The Insufficiency of the Light of Nature exemplified in the Vices and Depravity of the Heathen World, including some Strictures on Payne's Age of Reason. 1s. 6d. Arch. 1797.*

In the controversy excited by the appearance of the *Age of Reason*, this able defence of revealed religion escaped our notice. Written in a cool dispassionate manner, it attacks infidelity in its strong holds. A comparison is well drawn between the morality of the heathens (both the common people and philosophers) and that of the Christians; and the ignorance of the former with respect to the true God is contrasted with the purer knowledge on that subject, which lies open to the meanest Christian in the Scriptures. To Paine's assertions, facts derived from history and the opinions solemnly given by philosophers are opposed. The writer is a man of great reading, which he employs with judgement; and he presents, within a small compass, a mass of evidence, which we think will have a considerable effect upon every candid and reflecting reader. It will perhaps be difficult to prevail upon those who have been seduced by the slippancy of Paine to examine the arguments which cool reasoning can bring against him; but such as are sincere lovers of truth may be induced to consider this work as containing a complete refutation of Paine's general arguments against revelation.

*Sermons on a future State. By the Rev. R. Shepherd, D. D. Archdeacon of Bedford. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Nicol.*

The work does not correspond with its title, as only the third sermon is published. The chief object of this discourse is to prove, that the moment of death is the moment of introduction into another state of being, and that the supposition of the *sleep* (as it is called) of the soul is without foundation. The usual arguments are brought forward in favour of the writer's opinion. We do not think that he has given them new force, or that he is likely, by his style or composition, to rouse the public to a re-consideration of this question.



*A Sermon preached at the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, London, before his Majesty, and both Houses of Parliament, on Tuesday, December 19, 1797; being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. By George, Lord Bishop of Lincoln. 4to. 1s. Cadell. 1798.*

With regard to this sermon, preached on a most solemn occasion, we are sorry to observe, that it is not entirely free from those objections which we have been under the necessity of making to so many discourses on similar subjects. The praise of ourselves, and the reproof of our enemies, are dangerous topics in a Christian pulpit.

‘ While our enemies have insulted the Majesty of Heaven, we have humbled ourselves before our God, and acknowledged our transgressions. While they have impiously denied his all-controuling power, we have prayed unto the Lord to give wisdom to our councils, success to our arms, and steadiness to our people.’  
p. 16.

In this strain several other parts of the sermon are composed, so as to diminish the pleasure derivable from the preacher’s enumeration of the blessings showered down upon us by Providence, and the consequent grounds for national thanksgiving.

*A Sermon preached in the Church of St. John Baptist, Wakefield, on Thursday, November 29, 1798, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving, &c. By the Rev. Richard Munkhouse, D. D. of Queen’s College, Oxford: with Annotations. Published at the Request of the Royal Wakefield Volunteers. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.*

Brother Munkhouse (we allude to the title prefixed to his name in the discourse delivered by him before the society of free and accepted masons\*), has favoured the public with a second thanksgiving sermon, overflowing with zeal and loyalty. A very small part of this discourse is confined to religious topics. A torrent of declamation is poured out against our Gallic foes; against all the abettors of a ‘mis-shapen and monstrous democracy;’ against ‘the restless demagogues’ in Ireland; and against all, of every rank, order, and description, who dare to entertain a different opinion on any political subject from this reverend preacher, who so loudly beats his ‘pulpit drum ecclesiastic.’ Our politico-reverend brother boldly throws down the gauntlet of defiance against all who arraign the wisdom or the measures of his majesty’s ministers; and, in the fierceness of his indiscriminate attacks, news-rooms, coffee-houses, provincial and metropolitan booksellers, circulating libraries, and periodical reviews, receive their share of abuse. All

\* See our last volume, p. 463.

this may be savoury meat to some, while by others it may be considered as a prostitution of talents. Indeed the sermon is, for the most part, a political rhapsody, unworthy of the occasion upon which, and the place where, it was delivered.

*Morning and Evening Prayers, for the use of Individuals, to which are added Prayers on particular Subjects.* 12mo. 2s. Johnson. 1798.

This collection is stated to be 'printed at the expence of the society of unitarian Christians, established in the west of England for promoting Christian knowledge and the practice of virtue by the distribution of books.' A similar volume of prayers for the use of families was before published by the same society.

The expressions are strictly adapted to the use of persons of unitarian sentiments; but the subjects introduced do not appear to be sufficiently comprehensive.

*A plain and popular View of some of the leading Evidences of Christianity.* By T. Toller. 12mo. 4d. Conder.

'I can scarcely satisfy myself to draw to a close without remarking that, after all, the most valuable proof of evangelical truth arises from personal experience of its happy effects.' P. 22.

To this sentence we readily subscribe, being convinced that the evidence of Christianity is plain to the serious readers of scripture, and that there is little danger from infidelity where the preacher is careful to impress upon his audience the simple truths of the gospel: without such care, all discussions of evidence must, for the persons for whose use this sermon is intended, be of no importance. We do not approve this writer's mode of noticing, in the pulpit, 'Gulliver's Travels, the Arabian Nights, Robinson Crusoe, Moorfields, Paradise Lost, Rollin, Calvin, newspapers, Doddridge, Bamfylde Moore Carew, Jonathan Wild,' &c. In a place dedicated to the delivery of the most momentous truths, the mind should not be diverted by unseasonable, indecorous, or vulgar allusions.

#### MEDICAL PHILOSOPHY.

*A View of the Science of Life; on the Principles Established in the Elements of Medicine, of the late celebrated John Brown, M. D. With an attempt to correct some important Errors of that Work; and Cases in Illustration, chiefly selected from the Records of their Practice, at the general Hospital, at Calcutta.* By William Yates and Charles Maclean. 8vo. Philadelphia. 1797.

We have not lately met with a more remarkable work than the present. The author appears to possess a strong mind; he often reasons correctly, and determines with judgment; yet the volume is occasionally exceptionable. The introduction comprehends an



eulogium on the late Dr. Brown, and an account of the very rapid progress of his opinions. A clear systematic view of these opinions is added, with some necessary corrections. The doctrine of accumulated and exhausted excitability, which we have admitted to a certain extent, and ascribed, with a fluctuating hesitation, either to Brown or Girtanner, belongs, we find, to the former; but the whole is delivered, in this part of the work, in a more consistent and regular form than it had before assumed.

The annexed cases are intended to support the Brunonian system; but they display the eager precipitance of a young practitioner. It must be remembered, that they are all instances of fever in a hot climate; and we have already noticed the good effects of mercury in these cases. In reality, mercury and wine were the chief remedies; for opium, so profusely given, could, in these large doses, appear neither as an astringent, nor as a soporific. It might have added to the efficacy of the other remedies, as a simple stimulant.

The treatise on mercury is brought forward with a view of claiming the discovery of the utility of this medicine in fevers; but its use was known long before. That the soreness of the gums is the effect of its *remitted* action, is an idle fancy, which daily experience opposes. The ideas of the causes of the good effects of vegetable acids in scurvy, and of the nitric acid in syphilis, are equally trifling. That mercury is effectual, when it produces an increased flow of saliva only, not when it appears to occasion ulcerations of the gums and fauces, is an opinion not supported by the experience of practitioners in warm climates.

The last essay is calculated to prove, that epidemics always arise from vicissitudes in the state of the atmosphere, never from contagion. To this treatise we cannot assign the epithet even of ingenious. The reasoning is deficient; and a confusion between a predisposing and an exciting cause frequently occurs.

*An Essay on the Causes and Phenomena of Animal Life. By John Herdman, Member of the Medical Society, Edinburgh, and Surgeon in Leith. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Johnson.*

This is an accurate and elegant abstract of the modern physiological doctrines. Through the whole, the author displays clear perceptions and discriminating judgment. He admits so much of Dr. Brown's system as has appeared to us to be well-founded; and rejects, with propriety, the wild fancies of that physician.

That excitability is connected with organisation, and, in its different states, with weaker or stronger organisation, seems to favour too much of modern jargon. We may take an opportunity of explaining ourselves on the subject, and shall, in the mean time, enter our caveat against such language. Of the kinds or degrees of organisation we must remain ignorant.

What is said of respiration and digestion demands our particular commendation. Upon the latter subject we may hint, that every

ingredient in the animal system cannot be formally traced in the nourishment. It is, in many respects, greatly changed. The phosphoric acid and the soda, in particular, seem to be new forms of some other substances, produced by new combinations or partial decompositions. The earth of bone in the adult is certainly the accumulated quantity of many years. It must indeed be admitted, that much earth is occasionally discharged in the urine, as excrementitious; that, when supplies are wanted, the earthy discharge diminishes; and that when the bones soften, it increases. But this is the work of the animal œconomy; and, though in rickets we may supply the earthy salt, according to M. Bonhomme's system, we have no means of directing its application.

### TRAVELS.

*Paul Hentzner's Travels in England, during the Reign of Queen Elizabeth, translated by Horace, late Earl of Oxford, and first printed by him at Strawberry Hill: to which is [are] now added, Sir Robert Naunton's Fragmenta Regalia; or, Observations on Queen Elizabeth's Times and Favourites; with Portraits and Views.* 8vo. 15s. Boards. Jeffery. 1797.

The curious observations of a German traveller are here republished in an English dress. They are frequently erroneous; but they give some idea of the state of the country in the reign of Elizabeth, and of the manners of the times. We will quote, as a specimen, the character of the English, though the passage is awkwardly translated:

'The English are serious, like the Germans; lovers of shew, liking to be followed wherever they go by whole troops of servants, who wear their masters' arms in silver, fastened to their left arms, a ridicule they deservedly lay under. They excel in dancing and music, for they are active and lively, though of a thicker make than the French; they cut their hair close on the middle of the head, letting it grow on either side; they are good sailors, and better pirates, cunning, treacherous, and thievish; above three hundred are said to be hanged annually at London; beheading with them is less infamous than hanging; they give the wall as the place of honour; hawking is the general sport of the gentry; they are more polite in eating than the French, devouring less bread, but more meat, which they roast in perfection; they put a great deal of sugar in their drink; their beds are covered with tapestry, even those of farmers; they are often molested with the scurvy, said to have first crept into England with the Norman conquest; their houses are commonly of two stories, except in London, where they are of three and four, though but seldom of four; they are built of wood, those of the richer sort with bricks; their roofs are low, and where the owner has money, covered with lead.

'They are powerful in the field, successful against their enemies,



impatient of any thing like slavery; vastly fond of great noises that fill the ear, such as the firing of cannon, drums, and the ringing of bells, so that it is common for a number of them, that have got a glass in their heads, to go up into some belfrey, and ring the bells for hours together for the sake of exercise. If they see a foreigner very well made, or particularly handsome, they will say, It is a pity he is not an Englishman! p. 63.

The *Fragmenta Regalia* comprehend the characters of Elizabeth, the earls of Leicester and Suffex, the two Cecils, sir Philip Sydney, sir Francis Walsingham, the earl of Essex, and many other distinguished persons. The prints (eleven in number) are curious; but some of them are mere sketches.

*Travels in the Year 1792 through France, Turkey, and Hungary, to Vienna: concluding with an Account of that City. In a Series of familiar Letters to a Lady in England. By William Hunter, Esq. of the Inner Temple. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. White. 1798.*

We noticed the first appearance of these *Travels* in our Review for November, 1797. In the present edition the account is extended to another volume; but, before this augmentation of the work, we thought it sufficiently long.

### EDUCATION.

*Scripture Histories; or Interesting Narratives extracted from the Old Testament, for the Instruction and Amusement of Youth. By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 2s. Newbery. 1798.*

These histories are introduced in the course of a domestic narrative; and they are accompanied with pertinent remarks. The story of Haman is the first; and the others are those of Ruth, Joseph, Job, Ananias and Sapphira, Gehazi, and Daniel. They are related with perspicuity; and the work concludes with appropriate hymns for the morning and evening.

*Moral Amusement; or a Selection of Tales, Histories, and interesting Anecdotes; intended to amuse and instruct young Minds. 12mo. Vernor and Hood. 1798.*

These tales are chiefly oriental. They are not ill selected, and may serve the combined purposes of utility and entertainment.

### POETRY.

*The Battle of the Nile, a Poem: by William Sotheby, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.*

This poem is correct, harmonious, and animated. The author, we may add, is a strong Anti-Gallican; and, like most violent men, he easily believes what he eagerly wishes, as the following lines may tend to prove.

'How art thou fall'n! gaunt Famine, day by day,  
Has trac'd from corse to corse thy desperate way:  
Strewn o'er the waste th' expiring warriors lye,  
Far Gallia floats before their closing eye,  
While hov'ring vultures on a distant shore,  
Shriek to their cry, and plunge their beaks in gore.

'The Arab war-horse has thy strength subdu'd,  
And waded fetlock-deep in Gallic blood;  
Press'd on thy steel, regardless of the wound,  
Swept with red mane thy chiefs that bit the ground,  
And, wildly neighing to the brazen roar,  
Arch'd his proud crest thy flaming phalanx o'er!

'Where rests the chief, whose arm the battle led,  
While kings and all their hosts like shadows fled?  
Who up the rampir'd height undaunted flew,  
And o'er the crags his iron thunder drew,  
Where nature, thron'd amid eternal snows,  
Bad Alps on Alps the mountain barrier close?  
Where rests the chief, who weigh'd the fate of Rome,  
And sign'd on Formio's field pale Austria's doom?—  
Hark, the loud voice of rumour loads the gale,  
And Europe spreads from realm to realm the tale:  
He rests in death, the dream of glory o'er,  
He rests untimely on a barbarous shore!—  
Not in the front of war, 'mid armies slain,  
Fell the bold conqueror, bleeding on the plain,  
While Glory wav'd her banner o'er his head,  
And sooth'd the hero, as his spirit fled:  
Lo! there he lies, by treach'ry girt around;  
The grim assassin sternly eyes the wound,  
Taunts the invader, as he groans in death,  
And loads with Egypt's curse his parting breath.' P. 12.

*The Battle of the Nile, a Dramatic Poem on the Model of the Greek Tragedy.* 8vo. 2s. Faulder. 1799.

A festival is appointed at Paris in honour of the fall of England, an event of which the directors and the minister of war are in certain expectation. The 'ancient men of Paris,' who form the chorus, talk very prudently, and recite aristocratical odes. Tidings arrive of the reduction of Malta, and the conquest of Egypt; and, amidst the general exultation, a messenger brings an account of Nelson's victory. It is soon after announced, that Prussia is sending 'hundreds of thousands to attack the republic, and that Germany is again in arms.' Another messenger has seen

'The rous'd Seraglio's veteran files—'  
the Russians, the Cossacks, the Ostiacks, the Tungusii, the Tartars,  
'Kalmucks, Fins, and Kamschadals.'



' *Messenger*. At Naples, England's fleet and Nelson's name,  
Triumphant through the eastern seas, have fir'd  
Her councils, and the dubious legions rous'd.  
The youth with patriot spirit rush to arms.  
They leave their hills, and genial skies, and vines,  
Their olive planted groves, and myrtle shores  
Circling delightful bays : the wooded steeps,  
And vales and streams romantic, far remov'd  
In that blest isle beyond the roaring streight,  
They leave, and under banners streaming wide,  
Sown o'er with royal lilies, like a rock  
Stand firm, and dare the conquering chiefs of France.

' *2nd. Director*. O England, there appears thy mighty arm.  
But for thy prowess and triumphant fleet,  
Sicilia for the worth of his high crown  
Had not our anger dar'd : and but for thee  
Had from his high throne fall'n, ere this, with shame.' P. 44.

We are surpris'd that no mention is made of general Mack.—  
Then comes an account of sir John Warren's victory ; then of the  
insurrection in Belgium ; and, at length, the ghost of Louis XVI.  
appears. The following is the last speech of the chorus.

' God of our fathers, in thy mercy, O  
Shorten the time of our calamities :  
In our extremest age, ere yet we go  
Down to the grave, O grant that we may see  
Our sons, to thee and to right reason turn'd,  
Repose in peace, and live through prosperous days,  
Their God their guardian, and their king their guide.' P. 64.

' The plan of this drama is adopted from the *Persæ* of Æschylus.  
The Greek poet compos'd his tragedy in order to gratify the feel-  
ings of his countrymen, by celebrating one of their most splendid  
successes over their inveterate enemies the Persians. As the British  
victory of the Nile is hardly inferior in brilliancy, and will perhaps  
be equally important in its consequences to the Athenian triumph  
at Salamis, the author does not know, in what manner he could  
more forcibly commemorate the illustrious exploit, than by adopt-  
ing the same means, which were so successfully employed by the  
ancient poet.' P. iii.

The patriotic writer has been premature. He rejoices at the fall  
of France, in consequence of the victory of the Nile, with as much  
wisdom as his own directors celebrate the ruin of Great-Britain be-  
cause the Mamelouks have been defeated.

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2 B

*The Niliad ; an Epic Poem ; written in Honour of the glorious Victory obtained by the British Fleet, under the Command of Rear Admiral Sir Horatio, now Lord Nelson, over a superior Fleet of the French, off the Mouth of the Nile, on the 1st of August, 1798. Dedicated to the Right. Hon. Earl Spencer. By W. Hildreth. 4to. 2s. 6d. Hookham. 1799.*

‘ The crippl’d remnant of his shatter’d line  
 Blanquet harangues and rallies—but in vain—  
 Pale horror in the form of British guns  
 Now spectre-like appears on ev’ry face :  
 See madness and despair his breast divide !  
 He swears—he storms—he prays—yet nought avails—  
 Exhausted each resource—what now remains ?  
 He strikes—he yields a prisoner of war—  
 The Franklin with eight more the boast of Gaul  
 Surrender prizes to the British flag ;  
 The rest escape and homeward shape their course  
 To tell their country the disastrous tale.—

‘ Great Jove, the arbitrator of the world,  
 By whose decision men and gods abide,  
 Supremely now upon his splendid throne  
 Sits in the vertex of celestial arch,  
 And with approving nod th’ event surveys. —  
 “ ’Tis well, he cries, be such the fall of pride—  
 ’Tis well aspiring Gaul thy fate is such—  
 Should thy mad projects all successful prove,  
 The nether world would be incompetent  
 To satisfy thy boundless lust of power,  
 Or circumscribe thy limits of ambition :  
 And thou would’st next with Titan’s giant pride  
 Against celestial order wage thy war.”  
 Thus spake the thunderer—at his left hand  
 Stood Cynthia, swiftest messenger of heaven,  
 Array’d in silver sheen—whom he address’d—  
 “ Haste to thy sylvan groves—prepare a crown  
 Of oak and laurel for brave Nelson’s brow ;  
 On which inscribe in characters of gold,  
 Which time shall n’er deface—*Britannia,*  
*Th’ approv’d of gods—the sovereign of the waves—*  
 So shall immortal fame inform the world  
 To what extent he merits praise divine.”  
 Thus Jove decreed.’ P. 28.

With all due respect for the genius of Mr. W. Hildreth, we would observe, that, in an epic poem upon a victory so peculiarly attributed to providence, it was injudicious to derive its success from the heathen gods, as, according to the most ancient and or-



thodox opinions, those deities were the fallen angels; Mr. Hildreth has therefore given the glory to the devil.

*Song of the Battle of the Nile. Published for the Benefit of the Widows and Children of the brave Men who fell on that memorable Day, and humbly inscribed to the Gentlemen of the Committee. By the Rev. W. L. Bowles, A. M. 4to. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1799.*

'Aaron stretched out his hand over the waters of Egypt, and the frogs came up and covered the land of Egypt.' Scarcely less numerous and scarcely more musical are the poets who have swarmed in England since Nelson exercised his power on the Egyptian waters. But among these the song of Mr. Bowles is heard, like the voice of the nightingale compared with the noise of the night-croakers of the marsh.

We extract the conclusion of this masterly ode.

'And, oh! might he, at whose command  
 Deep darkness shades a mourning land,  
 At whose command, bursting from night,  
 And flaming with redoubled light,  
 The sun of Science mounts again  
 And re-illumes the wide-extended plain;  
 Might he, from this eventful day,  
 Illustrious Egypt! to thy shore  
 Science, Freedom, Peace restore,  
 And bid thy crowded ports their ancient pomp display!  
 No more should Superstition mark  
 In characters, uncouth and dark,  
 Her dreary, monumental shrine:  
 No more should meek-ey'd Piety  
 Outcast, insulted lie  
 Beneath the mosque whose golden crescents shine;  
 But starting from her trance,  
 O'er Nubia's sands advance  
 Beyond the farthest fountains of the Nile!  
 The dismal Galla's should behold her smile,  
 And Abyssinia's inmost rocks rejoice  
 To hear her awful lore, but soft consoling voice!  
 'Hasten, O God! the time, when never more  
 Pale Pity, from her moonlight seat shall hear  
 (And dropping at the sound a fruitless tear)  
 The far-off battle's melancholy roar;  
 When never more Horror's portentous cry  
 Shall sound amid the troubled sky;  
 Or dark Destruction's grimly-smiling mien,  
 Thro' the red flashes of the fight be seen!  
 Father in Heav'n! our ardent hopes fulfil—  
 Thou speakest "Peace," and the vex'd world is still!

Yet should Oppression huge arise,  
 And, with bloody banners spread,  
 Upon the gasping nations tread,  
 Whilst he thy name defies,  
 Trusting in thee alone, we hope to quell  
 His furious might, his purpose fell,  
 And as the ensigns of his baffled pride  
 O'er the seas are scatter'd wide,  
 We will take up a joyous strain and cry  
 "Shout! for the Lord hath triumph'd gloriously." P. 11.

This poem will be read with delight, when the victory which it celebrates will be remembered like the conquests of Genghiz-khan or Timur, events bloody indeed and glorious, but unimportant in their consequences.

*Nilus; an Elegy. Occasioned by the Victory of Admiral Nelson over the French Fleet, on August 1, 1798. By Eyles Irwin, Esq. 4to. 1s. Nicol. 1798.*

Of the writers who have celebrated lord Nelson's victory, Mr. Irwin is almost the only one who has treated the foe with decent respect. We select with pleasure his concluding stanzas.

'Nor him may courage long, nor skill avail,  
 The assassin's steel or drug, aside to turn;  
 Quick shall the powers of Buonaparte fail,  
 If, through his veins, pestiferous torrents burn.

Then, of his numerous host, the victims brief  
 Of fell ambition! will a friend be found,  
 To pay just honours to their mighty chief,  
 And bid his tomb unfading bays surround.

O! if a foe the chaplet fresh may twine  
 For thy desert, which envy might presage;  
 To latest times thy memory consign,  
 To live, with Cæsar's, in the heroic page:

A sigh is due to talents misapply'd;  
 A waste of prowess, and of martial lore:  
 Which deluged Europe with a crimson tide,  
 And hurl'd Alecto's brands on Afric's shore.

When summer suns, dissolving Nilus' trance,  
 O'er thirsty Delta lift his fruitful wave;  
 The tearful *lotus*, from the gay expanse,  
 Shall bend her cup to dew the hero's grave!

And when the winter solstice bids retire  
 His world of waters to their narrow bed,  
 The tall *papyrus* yearly shall aspire,  
 To bear a fragile record of the dead!" P. 14.



## D R A M A.

*False and True, a Play in three Acts, now performing at the Theatre Royal, Haymarket.* 8vo. 2s. Bell. 1798.

We cannot say much in commendation of this play. An Italian villain, a faithful servant, and a blundering Irishman, afford little novelty. The piece, however, contains nothing that particularly deserves to be censured.

*A Day at Rome: a Musical Entertainment, in Two Acts. As it was damned at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden, on Thursday, October 11, 1798.* 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1798.

The success of these dramatic trifles seems to depend more upon the humour of the audience than upon the merit of the piece. Of our modern farces many are worse than the Day at Rome.

## N O V E L S.

*The Natural Son; a Novel; in Two Volumes. Translated from the French of M. Diderot, Author of the Nun, James the Fatalist, &c.* 12mo. 7s. Longman. 1799.

The literary reputation of Diderot is sufficient to recommend this novel to notice. The translator observes, in his preface, that he has taken some liberties with the original, with a view of adapting the story to the delicacy of the English reader. By this judicious precaution he has removed every obstacle to the perusal of a work which abounds with sentimental beauties, and the incidents of which, though not numerous, are calculated to excite considerable interest. The language of the translation is respectable, and is, in many parts, a successful imitation of the warm and impassioned style of the original.

*A Tale of the Times. By the Author of a Gossip's Story.* 3 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Longman. 1799.

The readers of this tale will derive a gratification superior to that which is usually communicated by similar productions. The story represents the gradual seduction of a young married lady of high rank and great accomplishments, by the specious arts of a philosophical villain, who employs the sentimental sophistry of the new school of morals to corrupt the notions, and destroy the happiness, of an amiable and too credulous pupil.

The authoress of this work is already distinguished in the circle of literature; and her reputation will doubtless be considerably increased by the propriety of sentiment, correct delineation of character, and nervous composition, which these volumes exhibit.

*Sketches of Modern Life; or Man as he ought to be. A Novel.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Miller. 1799.

In these sketches, the delineator principally aims at exposing the evils of illegitimacy, arising from the cruelty of those parents who

neglect to provide for their natural children, or who, while they do provide for them, keep them ignorant of their birth and connections. Lord Arrowsworth has a natural son by a lady who happens to have another by a different person. The two young men are brought up in ignorance of their parents, and yet are amply supplied with the requisites of fashionable life. They frequently meet in the same gay circles; and, by the artifices of a female dæmon, they are involved in a duel, in which one of them, lord Arrowsworth's son, falls. Such a catastrophe is perhaps more shocking than was necessary to correct the pride of the peer; but, as the events are here contrived, it is poetically just. Upon the whole, this production is superior to many of our modern novels.

*The Invasion; or what might have been. A Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Symonds. 1798.*

This *warning* consists of few incidents. A town is besieged: an English officer, who had courted the governor's daughter without success, goes over to the invading enemy, and obtains a chief command; he takes the town in which his mistress resides with her father, and endeavours to force her to his purposes: after a series of persecution, however, she is rescued by the national troops. Scarcely any allusions are made to the invaders; and, with the title of a political novel, this has only the common interest of a hackneyed story, full of trite sentiments and tedious repetitions.

*Gomez and Eleonora: translated from a Spanish Manuscript. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Wallis. 1798.*

We are informed in the preface, that this 'narrative was communicated to the translator in manuscript, with permission to make what use of it he should think proper;' and he thought *proper* to publish it 'with all its imperfections on its head,' with all its indecent scenes, and immoral sentiments—with even a story of *incest*, related in terms which seem almost to imply approbation.

*Confessions of a Beauty. From the French. 2 Vols. 7s. Lane. 1798.*

If this novel had remained in its original language, the interests of morality would have suffered less than they now do from its more extended circulation. The *Beauty* is one of those refined voluptuaries who, by circumstances only, are removed from the shame of public prostitution; and her confessions are calculated to promote that promiscuous gallantry which disgraced the manners of France under the *ancien régime*.

*The Solemn Injunction. A Novel. By Agnes Musgrave, Author of Cicely of Raby, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. Lane. 1798.*

Not quite so dull as many *solemn* things of the same kind, nor sufficiently interesting to any beside the *persevering* readers, by whose appetite for fictitious narratives our circulating libraries are supported.



## MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

*A Letter to the Church of England, pointing out some popular Errors of bad Consequence. By an old Friend and Servant of the Church.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1798.

The first subject upon which this old friend to the church enters, is government; and, in his detestation of the abominable doctrine that the power 'of government is from the people who are governed,' he observes, 'that the people are a large body; but government is as much *bigger* than they, as the sun is *bigger* than the earth.' Revolution and schism are his next topics. It is evident that modern politics were more in his thoughts than the wisdom which comes from above. We little expected so much abuse of Locke from one who, in speaking of human authority, tells us, 'It is an honour to submit our faculties to God, who gave them; but it is base and servile to submit to the usurpations of man, in things pertaining to God.' This is sound protestant doctrine, the doctrine for which Locke was the most strenuous advocate. Having thus selected the best remark that appears in the work before us, we recommend it to the serious reflections of the author, that he may make his letter fit for the perusal of the persons to whom it is addressed.

*Letters on important Subjects. Addressed to the ruling Elders of the Church of Scotland.* 8vo. Dickson, Edinburgh.

With some good remarks on the character, example, and manners, of an elder, and on other topics, the author has mingled so much asperity, that his work is not likely to have much influence on the persons to whom it is particularly dedicated. We can scarcely believe that there is any ground for the accusation contained in the following paragraph:

'I have to accuse the elders of the church of Scotland, men of general good morals, and of general regard for religion, men of general propriety of sentiment, and refinement of understanding; I have to accuse them of treating religion with irreverence, and abetting the cause of vice by their manner, behaviour, conversation, and expression.' P. 32.

The writer shelters himself under general heads of accusation; and perhaps he may have an insulated instance on which he grounds his attack; but charges of so heinous a nature should not be adduced against a respectable body, unless the accuser can specify time, place, and persons: had he done this, we cannot doubt that many champions would have stood up in defence of the elders of Scotland.

*Considerations upon Frauds on the Revenue. Addressed to the serious good Sense of the People of Great Britain.* 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1799.

The fraudulent practices of men in any respect cannot be too se-

verely exposed; but the frauds committed on the revenue in the present times do not seem to us to have any connection with the origin to which they are referred in this pamphlet. They are traced to disputes on the succession, and revolutions in the government. We rather attribute them to the greatness of the temptation to fraud, the facility of committing it, and the decline of a principle of honour in the nation. The attempt to make the character of an informer respectable is inefficacious; for, in all countries where recourse has been had to such means in aid of government, the informers have been always holden in contempt by their employers, and in abhorrence by the public in general.

*An Apology for the Missionary Society.* By John Wilks. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Chapman. 1799.

Mr. Wilks hints that this is a juvenile performance; which indeed we might have conjectured from the warmth and animation of style, and the profusion of extravagant metaphor. It was read to a private society as an answer to the question,—‘Whether the conduct of the American quakers, for emancipating their slaves, or of the missionary society, for propagating Christianity in heathen countries, be more deserving of encouragement and applause.’ The author decides in favour of the missionary society; but, although he pays many compliments to the quakers, he does not preclude us from thinking that the question itself was impertinent and invidious.

*The Balnea: or, an impartial Description of all the popular Watering Places in England.* By George Saville Carey. 12mo. 3s. Sewed. West. 1799.

Although there is some truth in what Mr. Carey asserts of our fashionable watering-places, yet, in general, we apprehend, he has mistaken severity for impartiality. With an exception of the case of Bath, and of one or two more places of this kind, his description would discourage the most idle of our summer loungers from taking their usual relaxation. Margate, Brighthelmston, and Tunbridge, must be deserted, if Mr. Carey’s judgment should be followed. So numerous, however, are the visitants of watering-places in these days, that we shall leave to some of them to determine points of difference, all of which it is not in our power from personal knowledge to adjust. Interspersed are some popular songs, and some caustic remarks, not wholly unjust, on the more successful rival of Mr. Carey in that species of composition. Our author has also employed several pages in endeavouring to prove that his father wrote the song of ‘God save the king.’

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#### ERRATUM.

In p. 236 of this volume, line 24, for *mathema*, read *anathema*.